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The Five Great Philosophies of Life

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The Week

Most people find it a good plan not to say everything that comes into their head, especially in public; and if this is a good rule for ordinary folk, it is a still better one for Presidents of the United States. If Mr. Taft had had it in mind when he made the big opening speech of his reciprocity campaign, he might not have committed the blunder of talking about "the parting of the ways," which was made so much of by the Canadian Opposition. And we cannot help thinking that another instance in point is furnished by these remarks in his speech at St. Paul on the Panama Canal:

Then there is the question of tolls. We have agreed that we will charge equal tolls to all countries and there arose the question how far we may favor our own vessels between coast and coast, as we exclude vessels of any other country from that trade. The question is whether if we remit the tolls we are in a sense discriminating against any other country that has no right and no power to enter upon that trade. It may be that it will be held that the rule can apply to them as to others; if so, there is nothing to prevent our voting back to the coastwise vessels the tolls which they would be required to pay.

Was ever a proposal to whip the devil round the stump made with such child-like innocence? Perhaps the rule against discrimination can be got over, says the President, on a special plea; but if that special plea should be decided to be baseless, then there is nothing to prevent our getting by a trick what we have had to acknowledge we could not get fairly and aboveboard.

The delightful simplicity of Mr. William Allen White's analysis of the Republican Presidential situation must commend it to all devotees of the science of political prophesy. A few bold strokes of insight, and poor Taft's business is settled. He can't be nominated without getting the Southern delegates, and he can't get the Southern delegates if Wall Street wants to take them away from him, and Wall Street will take them away from him, because it knows he can't win. The circle seems quite complete. But let us see. Wall Street hates La Follette like poison, and cannot be

satisfied to knock Taft out if that should mean the nomination of the Wisconsin Progressive; so the question arises, who is to be set up against La Follette in place of Taft? That difficulty may possibly be got over by putting up "some fine, unimpeachable, dignified candidate like Seth Low, President Butler of Columbia, Senator Lodge, or Senator Burton of Ohio." Thus we have the circle complete again—but for one trifling gap. If Wall Street has intelligence enough to know that Taft cannot be elected, what sort of intelligence will it be exercising in trying to get a man elected whose nomination would be brought about primarily by its control of Southern delegates through its ownership of Southern railways, and whose candidacy would bear the mark "made in Wall Street" all through the campaign? Thus the case is not so simple as it seems, and Mr. Taft still has a fighting chance for the nomination in spite of Mr. White's diagnosis of the condition of Wall Street's mind.

Why go further than Albany for a Democratic candidate for the Presidency? Here is Gov. Dix telling us—as the newsboys would say—"all about" the Trust question, and surely that is the question of the day. "The great need of the time is to cease ill-considered interference, and, consistent with human rights, give the fullest play possible to the energy and resourcefulness of the American people." No objection to well-considered interference, please notice; and a reservation is clearly made for the claims of "human rights." That is the way to solve the Trust problem, and the wonder is that nobody has thought of it before. Perhaps one reason, however, for this failure has been the neglect of other people, in the pressure of politics and law and business complications, to take a philosophical survey of the fundamental factors in the case. These are set forth by the Governor with a firm hand and an unflinching pen. He sees plainly that "capital has a just claim to remuneration commensurate with the hazard and risk of business and financial enterprises, and the compensation of labor should be far above the line of bare subsistence," and he does not hesitate to say so.

Secretary Fisher's address on "Alaskan Problems," before the American Mining Congress, is wholly free from controversial or partisan spirit, and is manifestly the result of painstaking inquiry and observation, and of impartial thinking. Upon many aspects of the agitation over the exploiting of Alaska's resources, Mr. Fisher's statements throw a milder light than has been upon them in the pages of some of the muck-raking magazines; but upon the central question involved in that agitation his conclusions are as clear and as emphatically expressed as the most determined conservationist can desire. "The time has passed," says the Secretary, "when the Government should convey an unrestricted title to its coal fields. The day is done in which the Government should deliberately encourage the unrestricted private exploitation of the sources of power."

On the contrary, Mr. Fisher declares unqualifiedly for the working of the coal lands under a system of leases and royalties, the ownership remaining with the Government. Proof of the practicability of this plan he adduces from experience in this country, in Australia and New Zealand, and in the Yukon territory adjacent to Alaska. So far as the question of delay in the using of the coal is concerned, Secretary Fisher's statement is that "by making the terms of our leases liberal we can make them even more attractive to capital than if we adopt the policy of an outright sale of the fee"—provided we understand by "capital" working capital and not speculative capital. As for the objection that it would be impossible to get any leasing legislation through Congress, this is neatly and completely dispatched by the Secretary in the simple remark that, in his judgment, "Congress is far more likely to pass a rational leasing measure than it is to throw the coal fields of Alaska open for unrestricted private exploitation."

It is twenty-five years since Archbishop Gibbons of Baltimore was made a member of the College of Cardinals in succession to McCloskey of New York. During that quarter of a century the Catholic population of this country has greatly increased in numbers, in wealth,

and in prestige. The enlarged representation among the Princes of the Church which the remarkable growth of Catholicism in this country long ago justified is sometimes supposed to have been delayed by the conflict of opposing currents within the American Church. Such controversies are apparently no longer a living issue. At any rate there is handsome compensation for the long-deferred honor in the unexpected number of American prelates upon whom the distinction has at last been bestowed. The United States will now have four Cardinals out of a total of seventy-three, which is not greatly out of proportion to the number of Catholics in this country. The new creations are indicative, however, of something more than the growth of Catholicism in the United States; they recognize also the larger place which this country occupies in the eye of the world. At a time when the Church in Europe is sorely beset in many places, the new appointments are a tribute to the friendly relations between Church and State which are the only ones conceivable in our system.

The remarkable personal qualities and the extraordinary career of the late Joseph Pulitzer deserve such recognition as his sudden death has called forth. His story of struggle upward from the lowliest beginnings is what we like to think typically American. His rise was no accident. He had the mind and will to carve his way anywhere. To an energy which was both restless and untiring, he added a marked intellectual grasp. And the way in which, during the closing years of his life, Mr. Pulitzer kept his intellectual interests alive though in the grip of relentless disease and stricken with blindness, witnessed to an inner spring of vitality in the man, and an indomitable resolution. As a newspaper proprietor and editor, Mr. Pulitzer is to be credited with having championed many of the good causes of his time. Under him, for example, the New York *World* was early a stout advocate of the reform of the civil service. This implied sincere conviction on Mr. Pulitzer's part, for at the time the movement was not popular. Perhaps it was related in his mind to that general fight for the people against privilege in which he thought of himself as engaged—the spoils of office being, in this case, the privilege which politicians arrogantly

claimed. Also for a revenue tariff and for sound money his newspaper valiantly contended. Indeed, it was a part of Mr. Pulitzer's instinct for politics and sagacity in reading the future in the present that he should have been so often on the right side of important public questions.

It is a different matter when we consider the type of journalism which Mr. Pulitzer first fully exemplified in New York. About that, it is notorious that doubts arose in his own mind! He came to feel that what he had helped create had somehow become too powerful and had got away. It is known that he often expressed some such idea about his own paper; what he thought of the imitators who had bettered his instructions, may easily be imagined. From the first days of his control of the *World*, he struck out boldly for a new kind of "publicity" in journalism. But that word means many things. It covers not only the exposure of political scoundrels, but it denotes, in practice, a kind of constant clamor rising into a shriek, with a daily prying into private affairs as if nothing existed anywhere which should not be dragged into the light of day, and, worse than all, a lurid exploitation of crime and nastiness. Attempt has been made to justify such methods on the plea of "appealing to a wider audience," and acquiring the greatest possible "influence." But there is always a danger lest influence be confused with circulation—meaning profits—and the wider audience be only another way of spelling larger dividends. At any rate, the admittedly evil means remain evil and work evil, even if they are adopted in the hope of attaining good ends. "The Press and Crime" was one of the topics discussed at the meeting of the American Academy of Medicine, last June, and the author of a paper on "Neurotic Books and Newspapers as Factors in the Mortality of Suicide and Crime" specifically accused the *World* of having given a lead and a vogue to "prurient and crime-inspiring periodicals."

Mr. Taft, as a consistent advocate of peace, endeavored at the University of Minnesota to show that peace hath not only her victories, but her heroisms as well. Braver deeds may have been done than Mr. Taft's when he told his college audience that their favorite yells were

senseless and barbaric; but history has not recorded them. The miracle was that the President's words were not immediately drowned in a roar of

Rah, rah, rah, Ski-U-mah,—hurrah—hurrah 'Varsity—'Varsity!—Minne-so-ta!

And the indignant cry would have been caught up by one seat of learning after another, Dartmouth flinging in an indignant

Wah who wah! wah who wah! da-da-da, Dartmouth! wah who wah! T-i-g-e-r!

Benzonia College rising to an angry staccato,

Ski-yu-bah! Ky-yi, Ky-yi, Ky-yippy, Ki-yah! Ben-zee, Ben-zee, Benzonia, Yippi, Ki-yi, Ky-yoush!

Ohio Wesleyan remarking somewhat sardonically,

O-we-we-wow! A-la-ka-zu-zu-zow! Raze-zu-zu! Viva! Viva! O-W-U!

and Georgetown announcing with tremendous Wagnerian finality,

Hoya! Hoya! Haxa! Hoya! Hoya! Georgetown Hoya! Horah Doray Hai I Hickey, Hickey, Kal, Kal, Moky, Moky, Hay I, Toe Me!

Before this avalanche of wrath, even the number of first-voters Mr. Taft may have alienated would have sunk into secondary consequence.

In his address at the unveiling of the Bryant statue in New York, Dr. Van Dyke wisely gave to Bryant's poetry the first place in the appeal which he makes for lasting remembrance. Prize as we should the service of the public-spirited citizen, and praise as we may the long labor of the newspaper man, it is the imaginative quality of the poet, and his representative position in our literary history, which are the best claim of the name of Bryant to be commemorated. In an age beset by materialism and sordid tendencies, this public tribute to a poet seems to acquire special meaning. It is the protest of the spirit against the things that would quench it. In honoring a poet we somehow record our belief that a man's life does not consist in the abundance of things which he possesses, and that there is something finer than luxury and nobler than power. Even when we are fallen on prosaic days, and it should seem that the voice of the singer falls and his vision perishes, there is still the invincible hope that a poet will arise, in answer to invocations like that of Clough, to interpret our time truly to us. A statue to Bryant the poet thus becomes a significant treasure of New York.

G. B. Shaw has had to wait some time for an endorsement of his conviction that he could write as well as Shakespeare, and that he had never done anything as poor as "As You Like It." It has now come, however, and from no less an authority than a Western high school. The literary societies managed by the pupils are at one with the faculty in declaring the Stratford dramatist "illicitious, unclean, and objectionable," and in demanding the withdrawal of his productions from the curriculum in favor of those of Ibsen and Shaw. The strongest point of their indictment is that the "bard of Avon" was "a cheap grand-stand player." This puts the antithesis between present and former playwrights perfectly. It is the greatest of pities that the Marlowes and the Shakespeares were so shortsighted as to prefer momentary success, however won, to the lofty ideal of writing for posterity, which dominates the immortals of our own time. Had it not been for the factitious importance given to the sensational author of "Hamlet" by prescribing his works for study in our schools, he could not have obtained such a hold upon us.

Irresponsible muck-raking appears at its worst in an article in the *Cosmopolitan*, purporting to describe the "carnival of corruption" in Mississippi culminating in the election of Leroy Percy to the United States Senate in 1910. The writer seeks to show that the same interests which elected William Lorimer in Illinois operated in the choice of Senator Percy over Vardaman by a vote of 87 to 82. The whole case hinged upon the testimony of Bilbo, a State Senator, and one of Vardaman's henchmen, that he had trapped L. C. Dulaney, Senator Percy's manager, into bribing him for his vote. Dulaney was indicted and tried, but acquitted, the writer charges, by a packed jury of Percy supporters. As a matter of fact, the jury, of whom eight were Vardaman men, acquitted Dulaney upon the testimony of Bilbo himself, when it had been proved that the banknotes which he swore were the identical ones handed to him had been issued by a bank in his home town, on a date after that on which the bribery was said to have taken place. Moreover, the Legislature, in joint session, after a complete investigation, exonerated every one concerned save Bilbo—and this, not by a partisan

division as a whitewashing measure, as the writer alleges, but by a unanimous vote.

Madero's enemies in Mexico evidently find any kind of stick good enough for their purposes. We imagine that even the German Kaiser could venture to say, as Madero is charged with saying, that he should rather govern with the cooperation of the people than with the aid of bayonets. Why this should have been construed into an insult to the Mexican army and should have thrown the Chamber of Deputies into a fury of protest, does not appear from the context, the situation, or the record made by the Mexican army against Madero himself. The situation is complicated by the peculiar nature of the charges brought against Madero in connection with the insurrectionary movement led by Gen. Zapata, with whom the President-elect is supposed to be in connivance. Why Madero should conspire to ruin his own Administration right from the start does not appear. There is a different explanation that suggests itself. Madero, in assuming office, finds this fairly serious revolutionary movement on his hands. He does not want to begin his Presidential career by initiating a civil war, and believes that a policy of conciliation might bring the rebels to terms. Hence the expression about cooperation and bayonets, and hence the wrath of those Deputies who are his enemies or who do not understand his motives.

Those people who have described Italy's advent into Tripoli as a campaign for civilization, are now in a position to record the first decisive victory scored for civilization—namely, the indiscriminate massacre of thousands of non-combatant natives by the panic-stricken Italian soldiery. It is not to be supposed that Italy entered upon her adventure in Tripoli without being prepared to pay a heavy price. Putting aside the disastrous experiences in Abyssinia, the Italian General Staff must have been fully aware that campaigning in the tropics is a very expensive bit of business. Even the model German army found that to be the case in East Africa and Southwest Africa. The French Government had to throw nearly fifty thousand troops into Morocco during the campaign that followed

the occupation of Casablanca, and Italy must count upon severer opposition than the French encountered. The Turkish army in Tripoli, while unimpressive in point of numbers, nevertheless constitutes a nucleus about which the desert horsemen may be brought into something like military discipline. And in the Turkish officers the natives will find leadership of a kind that the Beduin tribesmen in Morocco were entirely without. That brilliant young officer Enver Bey, one of the pillars of the new régime at Constantinople, is reported to have arrived in Tripoli, or to be on his way there. Ultimately, it is to be supposed, the Italians will make themselves masters of the country. The national honor is now so deeply engaged in the enterprise that any sacrifices necessary to the end will be forthcoming. But Italy will be fortunate if she comes out of the struggle with merely a heavy loss of men and money. The reaction upon conditions at home is one that the Government must look forward to with no little anxiety.

The necessity of saving one's face, which has always been a cardinal point of Chinese diplomacy, apparently no longer holds, or applies only to dealings with the foreign devils. Certainly the Imperial edict issued at Peking on Monday is one of the most notable examples of eating humble pie on record. It is an extraordinary document. The child Emperor, pleading his immature years as an excuse for ignorance, scores his former Ministers and pledges himself to rule henceforth in complete accord with the desires of his people. For a little boy of five the paper is not a bad showing either from the tactical or the stylistic point of view. There should be a great literary career in store for the Emperor Pu-Yi. As for the general situation, the Imperial edict merely puts into immediate effect the promises of earlier years. The exclusion of the Manchu princes from a voice or place in the Constitutional scheme was bound to come as soon as a real Parliament was assembled. If it should turn out that the reported Imperialist victory at Hankow is as complete as it has been reported to be, conditions leave both parties in a fit mood for compromise. And that is the best that can happen to China if her democratic institutions are to have a fair test, unhampered by the interference of the Powers.

THE SUIT TO DISSOLVE THE STEEL TRUST.

We suppose that most people who have observed attentively the course of recent events were not greatly surprised at the news that the Government had entered suit against the Steel Corporation. This great trade combination occupied what at any rate was admitted, even by its friends, to be debatable ground under the scope of the Anti-Trust law. To suggest that even the sensitive financial markets may sooner or later experience a feeling of relief at having the question tested and settled by formal suit, may seem to be speaking paradox. Yet the bringing of the billion-dollar organization before the courts was the only way, short of voluntary and complete disintegration, by which the constantly overhanging uncertainty could be removed. If the law officers of one Administration should not challenge the Steel Trust's legality by entering suit, that would be no guarantee that the next Administration would refrain.

The case of the Steel Corporation, it hardly need be said, differs in many respects from that of the Standard Oil or the American Tobacco. Its ten years of history have not been marked by the ruthless trampling out of competition which characterized the one, or by the industrial sharp practice which characterized the other. Pittsburgh itself, the centre of old-time "open markets" in the steel trade, concedes that the Trust has in a certain sense fostered competition by refusing to use its great resources to invade the territory of rivals. Its management is admitted to have stopped the excesses of a rising steel market, in times of excited speculation and urgent demand, by refusing to mark up prices to the extent of its opportunity.

Steel prices have admittedly been more stable, since the corporation was organized in 1901, than they were under the Carnegie régime; and if the Steel Trust has stimulated in the stock market, in a way to expose its management to grave criticism, that spirit of reckless speculation which it has kept in leash in the market for its products, this is not what the Anti-Trust Law undertakes to deal with. In advance of the present suit, the Trust has served notice of cancellation of the lease under which it held the iron ore lands which the Commissioner of Corpora-

tions denounced as virtual monopoly, and it probably would have consented to relinquish the Tennessee Coal and Iron, concerning the motives for whose acquisition, in the panic of 1907, controversy is still active.

All this shows why the Steel Corporation will come into court with a far better case than the Oil Trust or the Tobacco Trust. This prosecution will necessitate some much closer definition of restraint of trade. The weakest point in the Steel Trust's case is undoubtedly the powerful influence applied by its management toward preventing concessions in the price of steel, through "moral suasion" and the "Gary dinners," at such times as the year which followed the panic of 1907. When the head of the organization resorted to the assertion that supply and demand no longer had any business to regulate prices, proposing, as an alternative economic law, the rule that prices "should at all times be reasonable and fair," it was quite inevitable that somebody should ask who was to settle the question of fairness. Supposing the Steel Corporation to have the deciding voice, would its judgment ever be influenced by the pressure of shareholders for higher dividends? And supposing that Judge Gary and the present board could be trusted to ignore such ulterior influences, could the consumer be sure of the policy of the management which in due course would succeed them? For ourselves, we believe that it was his own instinctive recognition of these serious difficulties which led the chairman of the Steel Trust to his extraordinary advocacy, before the Stanley Committee, of the fixing of prices by the Government.

The Steel Corporation's history has been in many ways an epitome of the history of its times. When the Trusts are attacked indiscriminately, as malignant conspiracies against the liberties of the people, it is only fair to remember that the people were not free from whatever blame may have attached to the construction of these huge trade combinations. It is not only that no effort was made in 1899 or 1901, when most of them were formed, to enjoin their organization under the Anti-Trust Law, which had then been for a decade on the statutes. There is something more than this to say of the public's attitude at the time. The investing community, small and large, was combination-mad.

It hailed each successive amalgamation of the sort with enthusiasm; it rushed tumultuously into the market for their shares. College professors set forth gravely, to students and readers, that the manufacturing business of the future could be conducted successfully in no other way.

All this, in our opinion, was part of the derangement of ideas which marked that extraordinary period—when serious men in the high places of American finance insisted that the old laws of political economy were obsolete and fit for the rubbish-heap. But the very fact that responsibility for the conditions which then arose in corporate industry rested largely on the community as a whole, makes it all the more right that the pending inquiry into the legal status of these combinations should be pursued with sobriety and with no spirit of vindictiveness. This reminiscence of the conditions prevalent when the Trusts first rose to their formidable power shows the utter impropriety of that indiscriminate clamor for the Government to "put some Trust magnates in jail," which has been persistently raised by some of our newspapers. Where promoters of monopoly have acted in open and knowing defiance of the law, the penal clauses of the Anti-Trust Act may be, have been, and will rightly continue to be, invoked. But in the case of combinations regarding whose lawfulness or unlawfulness the courts took ten or a dozen years to decide, it is certainly enough to say what must be done no longer by the corporations and their owners, and what must be undone.

THE BOSS SELF-DEFINED.

The appearance of Mr. William Barnes, jr., as a witness at the Albany investigation, has a value beyond anything that may be proved or disproved by his testimony. For he is that most interesting and instructive of political figures—a boss assisting at his own unveiling. One's mind reverts to Richard Croker's examination by the Mazet Committee in 1899. He gave to the public reluctantly and perhaps all unwittingly a picture of himself and his methods—"working for his own pocket all the time," was one of his brutally frank admissions—that was of great help in rousing the city against him. Mr. Barnes, no doubt, is too astute and self-possessed to repeat Croker's blunders on

the stand. The Albany boss is able and he is cool. Yet it will be found that, in essence, his conception of his power, and of the way in which it may legitimately be used, is the same as that of the Tammany boss.

After considerable skirmishing, Mr. Barnes finally conceded that he was the "local leader" of the Republican party in Albany County. Asked then to say what he understood by the term, he replied: "I suppose a political leader in a colloquial sense means a man whose advice is taken quite largely, pretty generally, by the men with whom he is associated." Mr. Barnes was probably unaware how closely his definition followed that of Croker. When the latter was on the stand twelve years ago he, too, was a little slow in acknowledging that he was the "leader" of Tammany Hall, but finally said: "If others think I am, I am willing they should." On the point of the nature of his leadership, he fully agreed with Barnes. It was "advice" and "judgment" that he was expected to give to the "organization," and they were "generally considered," since it "does not do to have divided councils at the head." The inquiry was also made of Croker whether his "wish" was not "a powerful wish" with Democratic Senators and Assemblymen at Albany. The boss answered grimly: "I try to make it that way." Croker, however, was consistently at one with Barnes in alleging the influence of the boss to be purely moral, and his power over those associated with him to be due solely to his reputation for superior political sagacity.

Now, it is evident that this leaves the whole thing in the region of mystery. The strange deference to the wisdom of the boss, as the bosses themselves set it forth, has to be ranked with the greatest puzzles and wonders of politics. The somewhat obscure process by which the leader of a party comes in England to be recognized as such is transparent simplicity by comparison. Outsiders are sometimes surprised that the King should know whom to send for when it is a question of forming a new Government, but that is nothing to the mysterious way in which all the Republican workers in Albany with one consent point the finger at Barnes and say: "He is our leader." The boss seems to stand on the same ground as a Prime Minister. According to the

old story, a member of the Cabinet said to a Premier that he didn't see the difference between a Prime Minister and an ordinary Minister. "The difference is this," he was informed, "that when we disagree it is you who resign and not I." Barnes would undoubtedly take the same view of his own supremacy. Those Republican workers who do not take his "advice," are expected promptly to file their resignations. Any other course would be flat *Majestätsbeleidigung*.

All these cloaks of modesty and mystery in which the boss wraps himself, when called to the witness stand, really conceal nothing and deceive nobody. The innocents must be few who are in any doubt about the kind of "advice" which the boss gives, or the means he uses to force its acceptance. Again take a look back at the Croker examination. Making allowance for the differences between Albany and New York, there can be no question that the same sort of thing has gone on for years in the former city under the Barnes régime:

Q. Is it not a fact that upon the success of the Tammany ticket in the election of the fall of 1897 there was a gathering at Lakewood of the important members of the Tammany organization, including yourself, at which was discussed the offices that were to be filled and the candidates for these offices? Is not that so?

A. Oh, yes.

Q. And at that conference at Lakewood practically all of the important offices of the city and county government were selected, were they not?

A. Well, pretty much.

Q. And your advice was asked upon them all, was it not?

A. Mostly all, yes, sir.

Q. Do you recall any member or any important officer of the city government now who was not discussed with you and your advice asked about him?

A. No, I do not.

Q. These men were all agreeable to you, were they not?

A. Yes, sir.

This gives us some idea of the meat on which our Cæsars feed that they have grown so great. It is the power of official life and death that is lodged in the boss's hands. In Albany as in New York he nominates mayors and judges and county officers, dictates the appointments, and orders those in office what to do. He has at his disposal money-prizes in the shape of contracts and "honest graft." In public—especially when he is undergoing investigation—the boss appears as a very quiet-spoken citizen who is amazed at his own political importance. All he ever thinks of

doing is to give advice. Yet what he is when actually functioning as boss, no one is in the slightest doubt. Surrounded by his cronies and his tools, he issues his orders like a satrap and is as remorseless as a Sultan in throwing an enemy into the Bosphorus. For all his mild manners and unimpassioned speech, Barnes is known to have ruled with an iron hand in Albany. His "advice" has often been given with a club. And the sources of his power are an open secret.

DR. COOK REDIVIVUS.

The cruelty of the Danes to Dr. Cook at Copenhagen shows up in all its baseness when we turn to the pages of the warm-hearted doctor's just-published and elaborate book, "My Attainment of the North Pole." "With sweet memories of the warm hospitality of Danes in Greenland," says Dr. Cook in his preface, "I here subscribe my never-to-be-forgotten appreciation; . . . and above all I am grateful to the Danes as a nation for the whole-souled demonstration of friendship and appreciation at Copenhagen." Such were the sentiments of the illustrious discoverer as he sat writing the preface in the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, so lately as June 15, 1911; what must have been his feelings the other night, when all these sweet memories were ruthlessly blotted out by a fickle and heartless populace? "There is something rotten in the state of Denmark," he must have felt, as the eggs came pelting into his carriage.

In this hour of his humiliation, struck down as he is in the house of his friends, we turn eagerly to his large and handsome volume to find the long-delayed refutation of the slanderous charges against him. Throughout the 594 octavo pages—not counting preface or index or table of contents—we are delighted, of course, to find an unflinching stream of that fervid enthusiasm, that gushing rhetoric, those iridescent descriptions, which have always furnished such convincing proof of the sterling purity of the doctor's soul. But, pleasing as these are in themselves, we know full well that they will not satisfy the carping critics. We turn, therefore, with joyful expectation to the nine precious pages appearing under the heading, "Copy of the Field Notes." It is not a facsimile copy, photographically made or otherwise—which is a pity; still we

may hope that some of the doctor's opponents will have enough humanity in their composition to overlook this little weakness. Taking the column headed "Observations, Etc." to be what it is stated to be, an "exact copy from original field papers," we scan the entries from day to day, to find just what observations—particularly of the sun's altitude—Dr. Cook took as he advanced upon the Pole. Unfortunately, however, he made a bad selection from among his notes. We get the latitude day by day, just as we got it in the first reports as they appeared in the *New York Herald* two years ago. But latitude is not written in the heavens; neither is it got directly from a reading of the sextant; it is a pity that Dr. Cook should have felt it more to the purpose to reproduce the result of his daily calculations than to give us the record of his actual observations day by day. And this is especially regrettable because it was owing to the total absence of such observations in the "proofs" he sent to Copenhagen that the scientific authorities there rejected the claim which they had so impulsively granted on his first appearance.

However, let no one rush to the conclusion that the original observations are wholly unrepresented. Opposite page 292 there is a photographic reproduction of the original note of the observation taken on the day of days—April 21, 1908—with the calculations deducing the latitude from this observation. If there had been plenty more of the same, and if the doctor had shown the originals themselves two years ago, instead of a professed photographic reproduction of a single one of them after the lapse of all this time, we venture to say that even in this hard modern world he would have found his claim to the discovery of the Pole generally recognized. As it is, we fear that even those who are not mathematicians or navigators will only be reminded of the famous Dunkle and Loose episode—the offer of those worthies to perform for the gentle doctor the simple task of constructing by calculation the altitude observations that would fit his daily figures of latitude.

That Dunkle and Loose business combined human and scientific interest in a higher degree than any other phase of Dr. Cook's story. It is, therefore, a satisfaction to know just what view Dr. Cook

gives of the matter, after plenty of time for mature reflection. This is what he tells us:

He pointed out, what I myself had been thinking about, that all observations were subject to extreme inaccuracy. He suggested his working mine out backward to verify them. As I regarded him as an experienced navigator, and moreover had had no chance of checking my figures, so, desiring an independent view, and thinking that another man's method might satisfy any doubts, I told him to go ahead, using the figures published in my story in the *New York Herald*.

Were it not for our abiding faith that Dr. Cook, in spite of all appearances to the contrary, is a man both of sound knowledge and of spotless integrity, we should be puzzled in several ways by this. We should ask first, how in the world the accuracy of observations could be tested by working back from their results to recover the original figures. But perhaps Dr. Cook, being somewhat perturbed in mind, was not quite clear in his ideas at the moment, and what he really desired was to verify not his observations, but his calculations. If Dunkle's calculations gave back the original figures, that would be a proof that the calculations had been correctly made, though it would tell nothing whatever about the correctness of the observations. Well, did Dr. Cook avail himself of this excellent opportunity to check his reckoning? Not at all. When they brought their "faked" observations, he examined them, and, seeing "the game the rascals had been playing," he sent them to the right-about, papers and all. Dunkle and Loose were not permitted to see Dr. Cook's original figures, and Dr. Cook lost the great opportunity to compare them with theirs; and so the world will never know whether the two sets of observations—the set "faked" by the gallant mariners and the set which Dr. Cook has been so carefully screening from the world's gaze—are in agreement or not. Thus does an evil fate still pursue this heroic discoverer.

THE EXPIRING REICHSTAG.

The definite fixing of the date for the election of a new Reichstag marks the active beginning of an electoral campaign which bids fair to be one of the most momentous in the history of the German Empire. The last elections were held in January, 1907; Von Bülow was then Chancellor, and the resulting

disaster to the Socialists, who lost 38 of their 81 seats, was heralded not only as a great personal triumph for the Chancellor, but as a definitive check to the Socialistic movement. That it was a distinctly reactionary victory was clearly apparent, both from its moral effect and because nearly one-half of the lost Socialist seats went to the Conservatives or the Centre. The reactionaries so regarded it. The Agrarians became more than ever convinced that, owning a large share of the land, they should, therefore, have the controlling voice in the nation's affairs. The widespread agitation in Prussia for the abolition of her suffrage evils was the more readily defeated as a result of this election, while Von Bülow got a free hand in both foreign and domestic policy. Altogether, the privileged and bureaucratic classes had every reason to be satisfied with the Parliament chosen in 1907.

Within six months, however, the tide began to turn. A number of causes, of which the rise in the cost of living is one, combined to set the electoral tide to ebbing away from the Government and its majority. Virtually every bye-election has shown a remarkable trend toward the Left, until, only the other day, in an election in Düsseldorf, a veritable fortress of the Clericals, with its 80 per cent. Catholic population, was actually wrested from the Centre, for the first time since the earliest days of the Empire. As if this were not shock enough, in the elections for the Oldenburg Landtag, the reactionaries were completely routed, the Socialists and Radicals capturing 26 seats out of the 45, with the National Liberals holding six more and the Centre only nine. The particular significance of this lies in the agricultural character of Oldenburg. In the cities, a heavy Socialist vote is expected, but not so among the landowners and peasants of this North German state. Moreover, this success was won by a coalition between Socialists and Radicals of the kind so long urged by the late Dr. Theodor Barth. If the National Liberals, who hold 56 seats in the present Reichstag, should turn in this direction, the Chancellor might easily find himself confronted next spring by a very different kind of bloc from that which has supported him heretofore.

And it is a different Chancellor who will lead the Government forces in the

coming election. Unquestionably a man of ability, Von Bethmann-Hollweg has none of the charm of Count Bülow nor his gift of graceful and moving eloquence. He has failed to impress his personality upon the public in any marked degree, despite the adoption through his efforts of a Constitution for Alsace-Lorraine and his revision of the workmen's insurance law. The nation has not been enthusiastic over the latest Moroccan incident, although it has stood solidly behind the Chancellor. The Germans feel themselves isolated in national politics, despite the Triple Alliance, and they cannot understand why, when others grab African territory unchallenged, their slightest move in this direction meets with criticism not merely in Europe, but in America as well. Moreover, their domestic problems are too pressing to admit of the ordinary citizen's becoming enthusiastic over an increase in the German sphere of influence in Africa. He is really interested in the effort of his Government to provide cheaper supplies of food—particularly in that of the Berlin municipality to furnish fish direct to the public. The tariff problem exists in Germany also. Von Bethmann-Hollweg's last speech shows that the tariff on cattle is not to be wholly abolished, and the excessively strict quarantine against American cattle is to be kept up unaltered. And the trust problem begins to cause uneasiness, despite the belief in this country to the contrary.

But some things are to be done for the laboring classes before the present Reichstag expires. There is a labor exchange bill pending and one for the insurance of "private officials." The whole complicated procedure of the criminal courts is to be revised, though the antiquated criminal code itself remains virtually unaltered. It is to be patched up in default of the scientific revision it needs. All of this is to be done between the expected exciting debates on the cost of living and the Moroccan affair. But, excellent as this programme may be, it does not, after all, go to the heart of things. One's mind invariably turns back to the hundreds of thousands who live on horseflesh and are now in such need of good food that municipalities feel themselves compelled to go into the fish business and are making every effort to cultivate vacant city lands for market-gardening purposes. A bound-

lessly prosperous industrial country, teeming with factories, in the very front rank of energetic producing nations, still finds itself unable to supply cheaply the food needed by hundreds of thousands.

That all of this will help the Socialists and the Liberals would be perfectly plain if there had been no bye-elections. The Reichstag is expiring amid a greater longing for a truer democracy than Germany has yet seen. The victory of 1907 for reaction was but the flickering up of a doomed cause. In Germany, as well as in England, the attack upon privilege cannot be stayed. The industrial growth of the nation means that men are leaving the old beaten paths. The German bayonets have, moreover, begun to think; the very drill of the service is in the direction of individual instruction and responsibility, the final wind-up of the idea of docile masses. Why, then, can it be surprising that men are more and more thinking for themselves politically and declining to accept the word of the privileged classes? At this distance it seems as if the next Reichstag could pretty well be foreshadowed—a reestablishment of the Social-Democratic representation at the old figures, at least, with the largest popular vote in the history of the party, and a corresponding increase in the Radical and Liberal groups.

DEMOCRACY AND POETRY.

There is in Professor Gummere's theory of the communal origin of all poetry something of the fine fervor and simplicity of the older days of German scholarship, when the *Volk* was raised into a transcendental creative entity and when a man in his study would not hesitate to explain a vast mythology by reference to the dawn or the storm-clouds, or whatever other special phenomenon struck his imagination. With unabated ardor he has once more charged the skeptics, in his N. W. Harris Lectures delivered at Northwestern University this year and now brought out in book form. Again we see the Faroe folk and the Botocudan folk dancing with joined hands or woven arms, and under the excitement of this rhythmic motion pouring out traditional chorus and improvised song in unison by a kind of mystic and sympathetic inspiration—*das Volk dichtet*. And the true

poet to-day is still but a voice for this communal instinct:

No one would dare to blot out the function of the poet, or make him mere mouth-piece of his environment; but it is to ennoble his function when one marks the progress of it from improvisation in the primitive choral throng up to the lonely splendors of the bard in meditation of his lay. And the survival is plain. The poet who makes verses by the most private act of composition, in that dream-state which Professor Stewart has described, never cuts loose from the conventions of his art; he has the throng always with him. They sustain his verse in the uninspired intervals which even with the noblest poets are so frequent and so long. The throb of his metre still echoes those ordered steps and voices; and without the instinct of kind, the appeal to human sympathy, the survival of communal emotion, he would not compose a single stave.

In all this there is an element of truth; but it errs in that zeal for logical simplicity which results so easily in confusion of ideas. The sense of rhythm is too innate and too universal to admit of any such exclusive source for rhythmical language as the communal dance—has not the very course of the blood in our arteries its swell and subsidence? In the same way when Professor Gummere extends these communal origins to a theory of "Democracy and Poetry"—which is the title and the main theme of his book—he touches on a real truth, but confuses it by what may be called a sophisticated simplicity. He sees creeping upon us a spirit of reaction which shows itself in a self-seeking individualism, in a cynical aloofness from the passions of the people, in the materialistic trend of science, and, above all, in the silencing of that "democratic note of enthusiasm and faith" which is the genius of poetry and which, he firmly believes, "will sound again, when and how we cannot tell, but in its right season, and in the large utterance which hope always inspires." Professor Gummere's lectures are a stirring appeal to the poet and to the poet's audience to sink themselves once more in the communal spirit of democracy. Only that rebaptism is needed to bring back the larger utterance of the Muse.

Much in the appeal is sound and timely. It would have been more effective if Professor Gummere had himself been a little clearer as to the nature of democracy and of democracy's influence in art. As it is, he rather adds confusion to darkness. "The central democratic idea," we are told, is "the active and

supreme function of the imagined community." That sounds like good Rousseau; but Professor Gummere spurns Rousseau, "for in politics as in life he was a picturesque tramp, and his reformed state is simply a tramp's paradise." On the contrary, Montesquieu was the real inventor of the democratic idea, which he found in the spirit of the laws. "Make that spirit dominant," says Professor Gummere, "and the actual ruling of a country may be monarchical, republican, or even socialistic, without prejudice to its success." We are getting into strange regions for democracy and the "imagined community," and the strangeness is not removed when we hear that Taine, though in politics the commune meant to him merely unbridled license, is the most perfect type of the democrat in letters because, forsooth, he believed a piece of literature was the absolute product of convention. To add to our bewilderment Professor Gummere, the champion of Montesquieu, the repudiator of Rousseau's ideas as fatal at once to government and literature, upholds Herder, the great transmitter of Rousseauism to Germany, as the divine herald of the new word, "humanity":

He set it vibrating with emotion. . . . And then the People! . . . "People" was no new word, but it got a new meaning: all the living sons of the earth had now a share in it, and all their utterance was sacred. It was Herder who opened the gates of human literature for outcasts and wayfarers upon the cypaths of song.

To such confusion does the communal theory of poetry come in the end. If Professor Gummere, instead of driving his theory to logical extremes, had rested in common sense, his plea for the democratic influence in poetry might have been as sound as it is actually eloquent. Long ago Addison knew that "human nature is the same in all reasonable creatures," and that the great poems of the world, whether the simple ballad of "Chevy Chase" or the "Iliad" or "Paradise Lost," endured in memory because they were inspired by the universal passions of the human heart. That is the true communal origin of poetry, the real democracy; and the writer who in pride or ignorance withdraws from that influence, as Professor Gummere sees so many withdrawing today, may be witty or fine or sensuously beautiful, but he will not be great. There is no mystery in Addison's easy theory of human nature, no learned

peering into the backward abyss of time. But it avoids the error of confusing the universality of true emotion with specious theories of the community. It leaves room also for the complementary influence, which may be called the aristocratic sense of distinction, as equally necessary for the creation of noble forms. Without this sense of form no work will endure the rigid inquisitions of time, just as without the appeal to the common, fundamental emotions of mankind no work will be truly cherished, even if remembered.

FRENCH FICTION FROM LAST SEASON.

PARIS, October 20.

"Les Exilés" (Plon; 3.50 francs), by Paul Acker, is dedicated "to the memory of my father who rests in the land of Alsace." It digs deeper the groove begun in "Le Soldat Bernard" by this very personal author, whose stories are likely to last. They are real novels of Alsatian sentiment dammed or turned violently into alien channels by annexation to Germany. It is not a book of politics, but a touching romance of "exiles" in a world which differs from that of all of us only in this peculiar wrenching of home ties. Those whose dead have led them to love the bright life and culture of the French have now to submit to unsympathetic foreign rule and transformation or go into exile. It is the Alsatian side as distinct from that of Frenchmen pure and simple, like René Bazin in "Les Oberlé," or even the "Colette Baudouche" of Maurice Barrès, who is Lorraine-born. That such masterpieces of recent French literature should spring from a war forty years past shows how enduring is the wound in the consciousness of well-nigh two million human beings trans-civilized against their will. The comparison with the romances of Erckmann-Chatrian, so Alsatian before the war and so anti-militarist and pacifist, is most striking. Paul Acker, who is relatively young and new, holds his own with all these as a writer.

"Pour tuer Bonaparte" (Ollendorff; illustrated; 3.50 francs), by Georges Ohnet, is the thirty-fifth novel or romance of this author, who has held his popularity at home and abroad ever since his first—"Serge Panine"—was crowned by the French Academy. His career is a direct answer to foreign critics who have eyes in French literature only for impropriety and worse. Technically, Georges Ohnet does not belong to "literature," not so much as Marlon Crawford and not much more than E. P. Roe. Like these he can tell a good story in language and adornments easily understood of the innumerable middle class to which most

of us, like Gladstone, are proud to belong, and which included Queen Victoria. The present story, as the author candidly remarks in a sub-title, is at once legend and history—one of the plots against Napoleon's life made by the Chouan chief, Georges Cadoudal. By the way, one of its principal actors escaped to lead a life of penitence, violent as in all else that he did; and he ended his strenuous life an aged priest and chaplain in the placid Visitation Convent of Georgetown, near Washington. Naturally, the novel takes no cognizance of this other real story; but it appears, with its own strong romance, in the bits of history gathered from "old papers" by G. Lenôtre.

"Le Métier de Roi" (Calmann-Lévy; 3.50 francs), by Colette Yver, is also something of an historical romance, but of these latest days. It deals with Anarchists—philosophically and religiously and fanatically so—plotting against some king. "It is a risk of the trade!" said King Humbert of Italy after the failure of one such plot; he fell a victim to the next. Perhaps the title was suggested by this; but the book makes no pretence to revelations of underground Revolution, as Wilkie Collins and William Black and so many other English story-tellers have done in more or less naïve novels. It is a romance of sentiment among those who take the world as it is hardly, their counsel being darkened by all sorts of ill-considered wisdom from Tolstoy and Herbert Spencer and such. The story shows the deftness of touch of the provincial lady who signs "Colette Yver" and, from her first book, won popularity and the French Academy's crown.

"Le Cœur se trompe" (Calmann-Lévy; 3.50 francs), by Louis Delzons, is the fifth book of fiction of a Paris lawyer who seems headed straight for the Academy and a substantial place in French literature. His first novels, doubtless for professional reasons, were published under the name of "Louis Lestang." He has a penetrating as well as keen vision of society as it is organized in France of to-day—of the honest trials and frequent good-for-nothingness of people such as you and I may see daily, with their humdrum love strained to heroism or crime. His style is clear and strong, with the realism of a master who has no intention of forming a school. His French men and women are not saints; but for a modern lawyer there is a curious and tonic mixture of religion in their failings, as there still is in real French life, in spite of literary efforts to the contrary. The book, however, does not belong to the "reaction," that terror of the nineteenth century Frenchman who has lived to see the strange turns taken by the twentieth. Its literature is of life, not of philosophy, like Anatole France's. His hearts—in three longish stories of pro-

vincial life—deceive themselves for reasons which reason does not know; and this, as Pascal wisely remarked, is the regular course of human life.

"La Bachelière en Pologne" (Mirasol; 3.50 francs), by G. Réval, is a sequel to "La Bachelière," which continued the series of novels devoted by this author to French college girls; that is, to the new set of French women who go up for university degrees. Her first book stirred attention greatly. It was "Les Sévriennes," dealing with life at the first state normal college for the higher education founded by the French Republic. Under many difficulties, particularly the antagonism which such institutions in present political conditions are bound to have with the Roman Catholic religion, this new formation of French women has made its way slowly. Solemn Melchior de Vogüé answered Madame Réval's first book in one of his own novels. Even now "well-thinking" families look askance at the bachelor-ess who issues from the "lay" instruction of the state, although girls from church schools go up for examination on state programmes by state examiners. The present novel leaves all such social conflict aside for thorough-going romance.

"Le Hasard et l'Amour" (Calmann-Lévy; 3.50 francs), by Guy Chantepleure, is a volume of short stories by this very feminine writer. Like all her books, it is easy reading about well-bred people who undergo touching chances and changes in good French and with kindly sentiment and refinement. It is not without merit as literature and reaches a high level of story-telling. It belongs with Georges Ohnet, but from the woman's side of the hearth.

"Sur l'aile des Moulins" (A. Colin; 3.50 francs), by Lya Berger, is a domestic novel with a French heroine among good people of Holland, where the windmills are situate. The descriptions of men and things are excellently done. Two of the books of this writer have been adopted by the authorities of public instruction in France.

"Au Pair" (A. Colin), by Mademoiselle H. Célerié, is the story of a French lady who goes into a German family to teach; it is enough to say that it is written with more refinement and insight than the more pretentious "Monsieur et Madame Moloch" of Marcel Prévost, dealing with the same matter—and it is more interesting. "Le Chrysanthème Rose" (A. Colin), from the Italian of Yolanda, belongs to the same "blue" collection for *la jeune personne*, which includes naturally many innocuous translations from the English.

S. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The first portion of the library formed by the late Henry Huth will be sold by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge in London, November 15 to 17 and 20 to 24. This portion includes only A and B of the large privately printed catalogue and the Shakespeares, which, though only forty-two lots, alone form the last day's sale.

The Sykes-Perkins copy of the forty-two line Gutenberg Bible has a manuscript note by the elder Quaritch: "This is the finest copy I ever beheld, or anybody else." It has many untrimmed leaves and is without much doubt the finest and most desirable of existing copies printed on paper. It will be remembered that the Hoe copy of the book printed on vellum was bought by Henry E. Huntington at auction in this city last spring, for \$50,000, the highest price ever paid for a book at auction.

The Huth library contains two copies of the Latin Bible of 1462, the first edition of the Bible with a date, one on vellum and the other on paper, both being very fine copies. Among many other important editions of the Bible are the first German Bible (Nuremberg, 1483); the first Bible in Low German (Lubeck, 1494); the first Bible in Icelandic (Holm, 1534); and the first Bible in Irish (London, 1681-85). Among many important English Bibles are Tyn-dale's Pentateuch (1530), the first printing of any portion of the Bible in the English language; the first Coverdale Bible, first edition of the complete Bible in English (1535); the first edition of the "Great" or Cranmer Bible (1539); the first edition of the Geneva or so-called "Breeches" version (1560); the first edition of the "Bishops'" version (1568), and the first edition of the King James or "Authorized" version (1611).

This portion of the library includes two important Block-Books, one the second edition of the "Ars Moriendi," the other one of the several editions of the "Apocalypsis Sancti Johannis." A manuscript Gæthius of the fifteenth century, an English "Antiphonarium" with miniatures, a finely illuminated "Apocalypse" made for Margaret of York, sister of Edward IV, and a Flemish "Biblia Pauperum" done about 1430, with fifty-three remarkable designs in pen and ink, are among the most important early manuscripts included.

While the collection includes many early editions of the classics and books in foreign languages it is chiefly notable for its rare early English books. And among English books some curious volumes unknown to the ordinary reader of English literature are likely to bring the highest prices. Among these are a long series of the works of Nicholas Breton with attractive titles, such as the following: "A Floorish upon Fancie" (1582); "Melancholike Humours, in Verses of Diverse Natures" (1600); "Wits Trenchmour, in a Conference had betwixt a Scholler and an Angler" (1597); "A Divine Poem, divided into two parts, the Ravisht Soul and the Blessed Weeper" (1601); "An Olde Man's Lesson and a Young Man's Love" (1605); "Cornucopia, Pasquill's Night-Cap, or Antidot for the Headache" (1612), and others. A series of the writings of Richard Brathwaite offers equally attractive titles: "A New Spring Shadowed in Sundry Pithie Poems" (1619); "Ar't Asleepe Husband? A Boulster

Lecture" (1640); "Whimzies, or a New Cast of Characters" (1631), etc.

The list of Bacon's works shows the exceedingly rare first edition of the "Essays" (1597), as well as the second edition (1598), a pirated edition of 1606, the third authorized edition (1612), and an unauthorized edition of the same date, as well as the more common edition of 1625, the last published during the author's lifetime.

The Bunyans include the fifth, sixth, and ninth editions of "The Pilgrim's Progress" and first editions of "The Life and Death of Mr. Badman" (1680), "The Holy War" (1682), and "A Discourse upon the Pharisee and the Publicane" (1685).

A collection of the works of Lord Byron, including the excessively rare "Curse of Minerva" (1812) and "Waltz, an Apostrophic Hymn" (1813), will first be offered as a lot, but if the reserved price be not realized they will be sold separately.

Among the Americana in this first portion there may be noted: Acuña's "Descubrimiento del gran Rio de las Amazonas" (1641), a book no longer as rare as it was formerly supposed to be; Archdale's "New Description of Carolina" (1707); Bullock's "Virginia Impartially Examined" (1649); Francis Bugg's "News from Pennsylvania" (1703); Gersham Bulkeley's "People's Right to Election or Alteration of Government in Connecticut" (1689), an exceedingly rare piece printed by William Bradford; "Beschrijvinghe Van Virginia, Nieuw Nederlandt, Nieuw Englandt, etc." (1651), the book which contains the earliest engraved view of the city of New York, though this important fact is not mentioned in the catalogue; and an interesting manuscript "Histoire Naturelle des Indes," supposed to have been written by a Frenchman who accompanied Drake in one of his voyages.

Some of the Huth books which are supposed to be unique, no other copies being known, are: Henry Austin's "Scourge of Venus" (1613), "The Academy of Compliments" (1658), "The Goodly History of the Lady Lucrece and her Lover Eurialus" (1560), "An Interlocucyon with an Argument betwixt Man and Woman" (Wycken de Worde, about 1530), Robert Armin's "Foole upon Foole, or, Sixe sortes of Sotties" (1605), William Baldwin's "Marvellous History, intituled, Beware the Cat" (1584), Ballard's "History of Susanna" (1638), "The Honour of Chivalrie, set downe in the most famous historie of Prince Don Bellianis" (1598), John Bradford's "Complaint of Veritie" (1599), and Thomas Brewer's "The Merry Jestes of Snug the Smith" (1657).

Other books of which only one or two other copies can be traced, are: "A Report of the Truth of the Fight about the Iles of Acores, this Last Summer" (1591), "The Actor's Remonstrance" (1642), Thomas Bancroft's "The Glutton's Feaver" (1632), "Marroccus Extaticus, or Bankes Bay Horse in a Trance" (1595), and "Adam Bell, Clim of the Clough and William of Cloudestle," two editions (1648 and 1668), William Browne's "Britannia's Pastorals" (1613-16), John Milton's copy, with manuscript annotations by him, is the most interesting "association book" in the sale.

The Shakespeares, at the end of the catalogue, are the most important collection offered at auction in recent years. The first folio is a fine copy, not large but sound and clean. The third folio

is the rare form of the earliest issue, title dated 1663, without the seven spurious plays and with the portrait printed on the title. In most copies of this issue the space on the title intended for the portrait is blank. The second edition of "Venus and Adonis" (1594), the first edition of "Lucrèce" (1594), and the first edition of the "Sonnets" (1609) are rarities that seldom come upon the market. Among the early quartos are "Romeo and Juliet," the second edition (1599); "Richard the Second," third edition (1608); "Henry the Fourth, Part I," two editions (1599 and 1613); "Troilus and Cressid," the first edition (1609); "Othello," the first edition (1622); "Hamlet," the second edition (1604), the fourth edition (1611), and the undated edition printed for John Smethwicke; "Titus Andronicus," third edition (1611); "Henry the Fifth," first edition (1600); "Much Ado about Nothing," first edition (1600), and "Pericles," the first edition (1609). The falsely dated quartos are also included, and it is a curious fact that Sotheby's catalogue, in the case of both "A Midsummer Night's Dream" and "The Merchant of Venice" gives precedence to the spurious editions with James Roberts's name in the imprint. Of Thomas Fisher's edition of "A Midsummer Night's Dream" he says: "This is regarded as the second edition," and of Thomas Hayes's edition of "The Merchant of Venice" he says, "doubtless the second edition." Since the studies of Messrs. Pollard and Greg there can, however, be no doubt that these two were actually printed years before the corresponding Roberts editions.

Correspondence

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT AND ACADEMIC EFFICIENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Recognizing the great public interest in the question of scientific management and its effect in the increase of industrial efficiency, the authorities of the Amos Tuck School of Administration and Finance of Dartmouth College held a conference on that subject on October 12, 13, 14. The writer was delegated by Clark University to attend the conference with the view of learning what he could relating to the increase of academic efficiency, and in the belief that this will not be without interest to your readers takes the liberty of presenting some observations on the subject. The conference as a whole was extremely interesting. It consisted of two long and serious evening addresses at sessions presided over by ex-Gov. Henry B. Quinby and by Gov. Robert P. Bass, respectively, the first on the Principles of Scientific Management by the chief authority on the subject, Mr. Frederick W. Taylor of Philadelphia, and the second on the Application of Business Methods to the Government of a Municipality by Dr. Frederick A. Cleveland, advisory director of the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York and Philadelphia, together with morning and afternoon sessions at which a number of papers were read and informal discussions on various aspects of the subject were held.

It was immediately evident that the leading men connected with scientific management were present. All the papers were

very carefully prepared and showed very remarkable results. A point on which all participants seemed to be agreed was that business men in this country to-day do not know their own business, a point on which the present writer has animadverted in your issue of September 14. At the same time, it was remarkable how sure each of the speakers was of his ability to give advice upon and improve any business whatever, not excepting that of carrying on a college or university. No doubt the very great success which these gentlemen have had in improving business methods, as evidenced by examples as diverse as machine shops, printing houses, bleacheries, concrete construction, and the unloading or loading of cars or barges, has given good ground for this apparent cocksureness. At the same time, it seems plain that their methods are simply those of common sense, and the wonder is that this sort of common sense was not introduced into business long ago. For instance, the methods of a very successful razor manufacturer were described in getting the sort of steel fit to make his razor blades, and it was stated that previously to this, no razor manufacturer had ever standardized a razor. Whenever this manufacturer found an extra good razor in a barber shop, he bought it at any price whatever, had the steel chemically analyzed and micrographically studied, until he found all the physical and chemical qualities that such steel must have. Certainly there is nothing wonderful in this, except that it should be new. Many other such examples were given.

The discussion upon academic management unfortunately occupied only an hour, late on Friday afternoon, and was participated in by six persons under the leadership of Prof. Edwin F. Gay, dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration. The speakers took as a text the celebrated report of Mr. Morris Llewellyn Cooke, to the Carnegie Foundation. Mr. Cooke did not himself take part in the discussion, being occupied at the time in the discussion of another topic. Most of the speakers agreed that in certain parts of its work, such as administration, accounting, the care of buildings, and the provision of food, a university carries on a business which may be helped by the adoption of business methods. But in the most essential point, a university differs totally from an industrial plant. It is impossible to standardize its product. If a shop produces a definite article such as a typewriter or a watch, each one like all the others, or at any rate, belonging to a recognized standard type, there is no difficulty in measuring the success of its output. No such standard article is produced by a university, although many of our scientific managers seem to assume that the contrary is the case. It seemed to the writer that these gentlemen were always thinking of an engineering college, and that the idea of a college for liberal culture, or a university for the advancement of learning, was not in their minds. Mr. Taylor, for instance, stated that the first case of careful time study known to him was that of his old teacher, the late Mr. Wentworth of Exeter Academy, who always in the geometry class kept his watch upon his desk, and turned out to be making a careful study of the time required by the various boys to do each particular problem. No doubt the sub-

ject of elementary geometry is one in which such a would-be accurate assignment of time is possible, and no doubt Mr. Wentworth was a very skilful drill-master and teacher. It is well-known that by his skilfully arranged text-books he made a large fortune, but it should not be overlooked that in all his life, Mr. Wentworth never enlarged our knowledge of mathematics, and the encouragement of such a type of teacher in colleges is hardly to be looked for. The writer asked Mr. Cooke how he would investigate and standardize a department of Latin, and was told that he would not undertake it. Fancy the attempt to standardize the output of a course, the object of which should be to implant in the student an appreciation of the beauties of Shakespeare or Chaucer. Take a more concrete case in which the task idea may conceivably apply, say the learning of a lesson in physics. Suppose it is on the laws of vapors, the statement of which is tolerably simple and which may be put upon four or five ordinary pages, yet these simple laws may require several years of soaking-in to the student's mind before he really appreciates them. Is this appreciation to be gauged with a stopwatch by measuring the time it takes the student to recite the words in which these laws are stated in the book? A second point in which a university differs from an industrial establishment is in the matter of cost and output. Most of the speakers at the conference spoke of the necessity of the manager having his eye continually upon the balance-sheet, and this remark was always applauded. Now the object of a university is not to produce a profit in dollars and cents, but the cost of the student's education is generally more than double what the student pays for it, and a university is properly an eleemosynary institution carried on because of its advantage to the community.

In the matter of selection of the worker the colleges have much to learn, and the student at present may be fairly compared with the worker trying to do the least possible amount and still appear to be working at all. One member of the conference produced a motto found hanging upon the wall of a student's room, to this effect: "There is just this advantage about study, that it shows by contrast the value of those things for which we really come to college." As long as the material with which the colleges deal is of this sort, no great efficiency may be expected. For this, however, we must blame public opinion, rather than the professors. In the matter of selection, the elective system was an attempt to make the man fit the work. But it has undoubtedly been much improved upon by the more modern and more scientific method of giving each student a faculty adviser or manager to plan for him or help him plan. It was brought out by Mr. Taylor that the results of scientific management had been to require a managing staff of about one-third the number of the workers. Here is a direct suggestion for the colleges. When there is one professor or instructor or assistant to each three students, there will be a marked increase in the efficiency, as has been shown by the example of Princeton, in the introduction of a large number of preceptors who attack the student in detail with excellent results. It is a matter of general knowledge that those of our

graduate departments devoted to research, and having the smallest relative numbers of students, get the best results. Unfortunately, the adoption of the scientific system which in the business world more than pays for the managerial staff, by the increased output, does not in the university work produce any corresponding inflow of money, but here, fortunately, as in other places, virtue is its own reward. Probably every professor is aware of how much more and better work he could do if he had a competent stenographer, and did not have to bother over keeping accounts, making both ends meet in his department, and doing various menial duties, but there is equally no doubt that presidents are at present totally unable to supply such desiderata, even to their oldest and best-tried workers. In the long run, the American professorate is composed of high-minded, able, and self-sacrificing men whose heart is in their work. The writer does not for a moment believe that the best brains of the country are occupied in business. At the same time, our professors do not reach—in character, yes, but not in training and productive ability—up to the standard of professors in Germany, France, or Italy. What would be said by the efficiency engineer to the statement that a professor of mathematics in the University of Paris, paid a salary equal to one of the highest in America, has to lecture twice a week for fifteen weeks in the year and has no other duties? What would the cost of such a professor figure out per student hour? And yet, such are the greatest scientists in the world, and of such is the Kingdom of Science.

ARTHUR GORDON WEBSTER.

Worcester, Mass., October 26.

CORRECT ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For years Professor Lounsbury of Yale has been advocating the general proposition that any possible error in grammar or diction is defensible if it can be proved that the same mistake has crept into the work of a writer of standing. Now, in fifteen prolix pages, in the current number of *Harper's Magazine*, he makes one more effort to attract attention by contending that the present methods of "Compulsory Composition in Colleges" do not make literary artists. One is tempted to quote Holmes to him:

Thou say'st an undisputed thing
In such a solemn way.

Nobody ever contended that they did. The limitations of college instruction are perfectly well recognized, and by nobody more regretted than by the men who administer them. "There are certain results, largely mechanical in their nature," writes Professor Lounsbury, "which can be achieved in the class-room." This is exactly the ground taken by every intelligent teacher of composition, and the only ground. Greatly offended as he is by the idea of compulsory composition, a slight sense of humor would have made him reflect upon what would be the probable result on the modern boy if composition were to be made voluntary. The student at least learns something under the present system, and that on the whole seems better than nothing.

It is a pity to see a man of Professor

Lounsbury's position treating an important matter so superficially. The causes for the lack of great writers at the present time do not lie in the compulsory composition of our colleges. It is possible that in these damp attempts at fireworks he is intending to rebuke formalism and incompetent instruction, both of which are fair game. In this case, little as his performance can be regarded as successful, he is to be commended for his purpose. What he has really been accomplishing, however, is to use the reputation of the title he holds to support the slovenly use of English and to discredit honest effort to make it better. The multitudinous illiteracies of current periodicals hardly need his aid in this direction.

ARLO BATES.

Boston, October 24.

SPELLING REFORM AND PRONUNCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of October 19, a correspondent, "M.," calls Simplified Spelling to account for the pronunciations *program* and *thott*. Now it happens that *program* flourishes especially in England, where the old spelling with *mme* is generally retained, while in America, where the form with *m* at present prevails, the *a* almost always has its full value. *Program*, in this country, appears to be an importation from Great Britain. We all spell *telegram*, yet no one, apparently, is tempted to call it *telegum*. As to *thought*, that is one of the words which the Simplifiers have expressly left untouched. The occasional pronunciation *thot* seems to be a by-product of the reaction against *daug*, *gaud*, *laug*, *laung*, etc.; at any rate, it cannot be laid at the door of the Simple Spellers. In reality, both slovenly utterance and offences against orthography are due, in great measure, to the lack of proper connection between our spoken and our written language. The printed forms cannot be trusted to convey a correct message to the ear, and the sequences of sounds by no means suggest to the mental eye the accepted combinations of letters. Hence pronunciation is largely deprived of the conservative influence of orthography, and spelling has to do without trustworthy guidance from speech.

G.

Cambridge, Mass., October 21.

"COMMENCEMENT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reviewer of Dexter's "Graduates of Yale College" (*Nation*, October 12) has made a natural and quite misleading mistake. He remarks: "Commencement was really the commencement of studies and occurred in the autumn instead of in June." Matriculation books are indeed open now in the autumn and commencements are in June, but the modern practice is not simply a reversal of the earlier. Our colleges, that is to say, held two vacations until about 1840, the one in May and the other in October, approximately [See, *American Almanac*, 1830-1850, under Colleges]. There was often some kind of academic celebration at the end of the winter term in April (such as the Dartmouth "Quarter Day"); the commencement proper being held in September, at the close of the

summer term. Has our climate changed, have the students themselves managed this business, or did "committees of efficiency" impose the new order? M.

Prince Edward Co., Va., October 23.

Literature

A RECENT VIEW OF URUGUAY.

Uruguay. By W. H. Koebel, Author of "Argentina Past and Present," "Portugal: Its Land and People," etc., etc. With a map and 55 illustrations. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3 net.

The numerous writers who during the last few years have given us so many books on the South American republics, their economic prospects, as well as their history and politics, have mostly passed by Uruguay, or, as it calls itself, the Banda Oriental. It is small, the smallest of all the republican states in the Continent. It has neither the immense material resources of Argentina and Brazil, nor the antiquarian interest and the striking scenery of Peru and Bolivia. It has not played a part in the general history of South America comparable to that of Chili. Nevertheless, it is in many ways an attractive country, a land which evidently makes an agreeable impression upon travellers, while it inspires its own children with an unusually ardent patriotism. We are glad, therefore, to receive a work which undertakes to present to the American reader a complete account of both country and people.

Mr. Koebel has published several other books on other Spanish American countries and gives evidence all through of a familiarity with their conditions and ways of life. He writes easily and pleasantly, evidently liking the people and desiring to take the most favorable view of their character which loyalty to facts will permit. This is a condition it is necessary to remember, for both investors and immigrants have been sometimes beguiled and misled by roseate pictures. His account falls into three sections. There is a sketch of the history of Uruguay from the first Spanish settlements on the Rio de la Plata down to the present day, a sketch which is pretty full for the period of the War of Independence, but much more brief when he approaches our own time and has to mention living politicians. There is a description of the principal cities and centres of commerce, with some remarks on the scenery and agricultural conditions of different regions; and there are also nine general chapters, in some of which the manners and customs and character of the people are touched upon, while in others the resources of the country are considered, and estimates of its probable financial, industrial, and commercial progress are made. Some useful

figures bearing on these last-mentioned topics are collected in an appendix. The numerous illustrations taken from photographs help to give a good impression of the aspect of the towns and the features of the life of the people.

Few countries have so large a part of their surface available for productive industries. In Uruguay there are neither deserts like those of Peru, Bolivia, and parts of northern Chili and northern Argentina, nor lofty ranges like those which fill large districts in all the above named countries, as well as in Brazil and the republics which lie to the south of the Caribbean Sea. As the land is mostly undulating and comparatively clear of large wood, it is available both for stock raising and for agriculture. The former industry has been up till now the mainstay of the country. Immense quantities of meat and meat products are exported, the recent introduction of *frigorificos*, or cold storage processes, having much enlarged the business. Tillage has advanced relatively less than in Argentina, but the soil is well fitted for nearly all the cereals. Both wheat and maize are crops of increasing importance, while the culture of the vine has been introduced in some districts and promises well, Brazil being rather too hot for vineyards, and most of Argentina unsuitable, as too flat or too dry. Thus Uruguay, which is behind the other republics in mineral wealth, has an assured and indeed more permanently promising industrial future in her agricultural resources. The increase, both in stock raising and in tillage, has been much accelerated by the construction of a railway system which is, for so new a country, remarkably complete and efficient. The capital which has gone to the making of the railway lines and to the establishment of the great ranching and meat packing establishments has been mostly European, but, in recent years, the American Beef Trust is said to have entered the field, and according to Mr. Koebel, who devotes a useful chapter to the cattle business, new developments may now be expected in this line of business.

Nature has favored the country no less in climate than in soil. The heat is seldom excessive, even in the sub-tropical northern border, for the proximity of the sea and the easterly breezes give coolness, even in middle summer. The extremes of temperature are much less marked than in Argentina, and in summer large numbers of rich people flock from Buenos Ayres to bathing places on the Uruguayan coast. Locusts, the scourge of the Argentine farmer, occasionally appear, but as the welfare of the land depends more on cattle than on tillage their ravages are here less destructive.

With a fine soil and a healthy bracing air, the people of Uruguay have two of the chief requisites for well being. A

third is found in the fact that they are of predominantly European stock, with an almost imperceptible infusion either of native Indian or of negro blood. Mr. Koebel is less clear upon this subject than we could have wished; but we gather, both from his book and from other sources of information, that there was comparatively little inter-marriage between the early Spanish settlers and the aboriginal tribes. The latter were not numerous, and the most vigorous among them, the Charruas, seem to have been almost exterminated in their wars with the colonists. The Gaucho, both in Argentina and in Uruguay, seems to be a product rather of conditions than of race mixture. Like the mountaineers of east Kentucky in the United States, he is a European who has reverted to a wild, rude way of life, under the influence of an environment which belongs to a semi-civilized time, and which the progress of civilization is now destroying in South America, just as it is destroying the less marked type of Western cowboy in this country. The Gaucho is, in fact, something like a Canadian trapper, or a Wyoming cowboy, though somewhat rougher, having ranged the Pampas for a longer time, and in a more complete independence. He is now, though still rude and illiterate, beginning to subside into a peon or laborer of the civilized order, but he retains his love of fighting and his readiness to take part in a revolution at the shortest notice.

This taste has frequently opportunities of gratifying itself in Uruguay. No part of South America has had a more continuous record of wars and revolutions. Mr. Koebel has enumerated one hundred and four battles. During the first two centuries after its settlement, its possession was disputed by the Spaniards settled on the rivers Parana and Uruguay and the Portuguese established on the coast of Brazil. The troops employed were few, but the fighting was obstinate, and though more than once the Kings of Spain ceded the land to Portugal by treaty, whenever hostilities broke out afresh, the first effort of each Governor of Buenos Ayres was to recover this northeastern province. Even when the War of Independence of the early part of the last century had ended by the defeat and expulsion of the Spanish forces in 1814, and it was clear that they could not recover the country, the Portuguese of Brazil renewed their efforts to keep a hold on Uruguay. A fresh and fiercely contested struggle ultimately compelled Brazil to recognize, in 1827, the independence of the Uruguayan Republic. But so far from bringing peace, this was the beginning of a long series of intestine wars between various military leaders who had come into prominence in the previous years of strife, wars which lasted down into our own

time. Thus the Uruguayan, so long accustomed to fighting, has come to regard it as the normal state of things, and quickly responds to an appeal to take up arms for his party. Since 1835 there have been two parties in the country, the Blancos and Colorados (whites and reds). They are so called because in a battle fought in that year the adherents of one general carried white pennons on their lances (then the favorite weapon of the country), and those of the other red pennons. These parties were at first merely personal, the generals standing for nothing but themselves. Like other parties, however, they have from time to time picked up principles, or at least tenets, on their way; so that of late years the Colorados have come to be the party of the townsfolk and of "advanced ideas," while the Blancos are friendly to the Church and find their chief support in the rural districts. So lately as November, 1910, the Blancos, apprehending, not without reason, that the Government was going to manipulate the elections to the Legislature in such a way as to procure a majority which would then proceed to elect as President a particular Colorado leader, organized a rising which lasted for some weeks, and was attended with considerable bloodshed. Where, as in not a few South American republics, the Administration "takes care" of the voting, revolution is the natural recourse of an Opposition, and as the Opposition, if and when it becomes the Government, pursues the same method, the habit of making revolutions perpetuates itself. The remarkable thing is that these very unsettled political conditions have had comparatively little effect on the prosperity of the country. Public credit is no doubt affected, and bonds are, for the time being, sent down in the market, but ranching and wheat-raising go on much as usual, except that traffic on those roads and railways which traverse the disturbed districts is stopped. It may, however, be remarked that revolutions have tended to be less and less formidable in recent times. The Colorados have now held power continuously for more than forty years, and the extension of railways, enabling the Government to move its troops quickly to threatened points, puts insurgents at a disadvantage. Though political assassinations have been pretty frequent, and party bitterness remains intense, war is conducted with less ferocity than in the old days. The Uruguayan has many fine qualities, like those fighting races of the East, the Albanians in Europe and the Afghans in Asia, of whom he reminds us. When the energy he has shown in war is turned to the arts of peace, he may prove to be one of the most progressive among the South American peoples. Mr. Koebel is not the only traveller to whom he appears

more attractive than either of his neighbors, the Argentine on the west and the Brazilian on the east. And though he is of virtually the same racial stock as the Argentine, neither nation having absorbed much of that aboriginal Indian blood which has affected the Peruvian and the Chilian, and which predominates in the Paraguayan, he has acquired a national character of his own, which seems likely to become rather more than less distinctive in the years to come. Its influence is shown in the fact that the children of Americans and Englishmen settled in the country are proud to call themselves and feel themselves Uruguayans.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Fruitful Vine. By Robert Hichens. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

If Mr. Hichens would only learn to let well enough alone! He knows his own range, which is confined to problems of sex, and he is seldom busied with an unreal problem. But he can never deal directly and simply with it. Or rather his instinct is to conceal the essential simplicity, not to say ingenuousness, of his mental process. He always has the portentous air of the oracle, or of the medium. With him, we breathe an air of mystery, however commonplace the topography of our surroundings. And one listens to a voice consciously rotund, rolling on and on, around and about and before and behind the subject, until one fairly wishes the subject had been left alone. But there are readers who enjoy fiction as an interminable meandering in a moonlit grove—such readers as could enjoy every word of "The Garden of Allah" and presently found "The Old Wives' Tale" stupid and long-drawn-out. The fact is, Mr. Hichens has the knack of providing mildly voluptuous entertainment for readers of lethargically amatory temperament. Such readers do not care to be hurried over their pleasures. Nothing which attracts the languid palate can be too long-drawn-out.

And, indeed, prolixity is the chief fault which the undevoted reader will find in this book. Mr. Hichens has never written anything with so little taint of mawkishness, with so large a measure of spontaneity. His theme is of burning interest to thousands of human beings, and fiction has hardly more than touched upon it. It is the problem of the childless wife and husband who long for children. We ought to bear in mind, when we are making up our tables of "race-suicide," that there are many such wives and husbands, especially among the finer-bred races and classes. The hapless pair in question are an Englishman, Sir Theodore Cannyng, and his wife, Dolores. They have been married eight years, are childless, and with both of them the desire

for parenthood has reached the point of obsession. The woman dislikes all children because they are not her own, while the man devotes himself to the children of his friends, the Denzils. Francis Denzil is councillor of the British Embassy at Rome, where the action takes place, and Sir Theodore has really settled in Rome to be near his friend. The Denzils have children, and Sir Theodore's heart is gradually seduced by them. Eventually, he becomes so shameless as to prefer romping with the Denzil infants to his wife's tea-parties. Then Denzil dies, and Sir Theodore becomes guardian of the children and is finally lost to Dolores. Meanwhile from background to foreground steadily moves the figure of an Italian noble who has set himself to win the love of Lady Cannyng. He does not succeed, but wins her body, which she yields to him that she may become fruitful. She dies in child-birth, but the child lives to be demanded by the ruthless Italian, and Sir Theodore is left, doubly frustrated, alone upon the unhappy scene. Mr. Hichens, as usual, patiently labors to extract every drop of emotion from his theme—a process which betrays deficiency in humor. Yet his detail is often witty.

The Innocency of Father Brown. By Gilbert K. Chesterton. New York: John Lane Co.

Mr. Chesterton has conceived the cleverest variant of Sherlock Holmes we have yet seen. The miraculous analyst in these stories of mysterious crimes is a humble priest who has been made wise in the ways of wickedness through the confessions of criminals. For friend he has a superhuman virtuoso in crime from Paris, who, being converted and becoming a detective, seems suddenly to lose all his versatile faculties and so furnishes the necessary foil and confidant of Father Brown. The situations are in the highest degree original—to say that Mr. Chesterton is their author is to say as much. But we are not led through the steps of detection as skillfully as we were with Conan Doyle, and there is little or no excitement of the chase. Mr. Chesterton has succeeded, however, by his virtuosity in words in creating an enveloping air of evil and invisible forces working through the human brain, which grows darker as the book advances to a kind of gruesome and ghostly climax.

The Price. By Francis Lynde. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Like the exhorter who, insisted that he had been "called" to preach, but was thought by his auditors to have heard some other noise, Mr. Lynde appears to have mistaken the nature of his inspiration. On the solemn pretext of proving that he errs who robs a bank,

be his motives ne'er so lofty, Mr. Lynde has worked up a "rattling" story of a spectacular crime, a clean get-away, and the slow hunting down of the fugitive—the kind of story that is its own best excuse for being. Whether the *dramatis persona* be fox and hound, or criminal and detective, a chase, full of the hazards of flight and the tactics of pursuit, in which hunter and hunted alternately baffle each other, is the most widely acceptable of all themes. If the actors be human, and there be included in the caste with the sleuth and the law-breaker a self-possessed, virtuous blonde and an inscrutable brunette adventuress, we shall not greatly care whether the motives and the costumes are those of darkest Russia or our own dear Middle West. A good working knowledge of localities, types, and manners from New Orleans to southern Minnesota, and a smattering of the psychology of crime, have helped in this case to subdue the native hue of melodrama. As to this gentlemanly hero *en mal* who was "one of the finest fellows in the world, gone a fraction morbid over the economic side of the social problem," we are inclined to regard him as merely very good bait for the serious-minded reader.

OLD TESTAMENT STUDIES.

The Old Testament in the Light of the Ancient East: Manual of Biblical Archaeology. By Alfred Jeremias. English edition, translated by C. L. Beaumont, edited by C. H. W. Johns. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Two volumes. \$7 net.

This English edition is translated from the second German edition, but with such revision and additions by the author that it may be regarded, he says, as a third edition; his general position, however, remains the same as in the former issues. The work has been much discussed by specialists; the translation will doubtless bring it to the notice of a wide circle of general readers. To estimate its value it is necessary to distinguish between its illustrative material and the author's theoretical explanations and constructions. There is a great wealth of citations from Babylonian and other sources bearing on the Pentateuch (particularly on the stories of creation and the flood) and on passages in the prophetic and historical books. Much of this material, of course, is not new—the ground has been gone over before—and not all of it is distinctly relevant; still, taken all together, the citations may be said to be useful. The chapter on the political history of the States of Israel and Judah is illuminating; it brings out the relations between those little states and their neighbors clearly and fully. Unfortunately, the greater part of the citations and parallels are so mingled with

mythological fancies that the general reader may often be at a loss to know what is historical and what is fanciful. The author is under the dominion of the astral mythological theory—one might almost say that he is obsessed by it.

This theory, adopted by Jeremias from Winckler and by Winckler largely from Stucken, affirms that there existed in the ancient world as early as the third millennium B. C. a body of teaching concerning the origin and development of the world which, having its first home in Babylonia, or receiving there its best formulation, spread over Asia, Egypt, eastern Europe, and ancient America and was known to and used by historical writers in those lands. The "teaching," as expounded by Dr. Jeremias in the present volumes, is in brief as follows:

There is a preestablished harmony between the terrestrial and the celestial worlds, so that the former of these corresponds to the latter in its entirety and in all its parts; the divine will is recorded in the constellations, and it is from these that the organization of religion (as, for example, the sacred numbers) has been taken; the history of the world proceeds by Ages, and these are designated by the Zodiacal signs in which the equinoctial point is situated—the present Age is that of Pisces, it was preceded by that of Aries and that of Taurus (in this last the astral teaching was formulated), and they by the Gemini Age to which our earliest historical notices belong; the religious teaching of the stars is embodied in myths—all myths are astral in origin—and historical writing is shaped by this conception; such writing in ancient times is dominated by the employment of motifs which are derived from astral phenomena and are thus connected with the gods, who also are astral; the motifs are such as combat and victory over enemies (the dragon or Marduk motif), secret birth, twins or Dioscuri, deliverance, and certain facts connected with the moon; in Biblical and other narratives the events described may be historical, but their setting is mythical, shaped by astral motifs; the Teaching is identical with religion and shows signs of a latent monotheism, and its characteristic feature is the expectation of a Redeemer, proceeding from the Deity, who in course of the ages overcomes the Powers of Darkness.

It is along these lines that Dr. Jeremias conducts his exposition of the early Biblical narratives. The stories of the post-diluvian patriarchs he regards as historical in their general scope, mainly on the ground that the social customs therein described accord with those that appear in the code of Hammurabi and other ancient documents; but his argument is defective by reason of his not recognizing the persistence of popular customs. His chief purpose, however, is the application of his theory, the astralistic, which he holds to have been in the minds of the Biblical writers. Every great personage is accounted to be the representative of an astral divine figure, and every incident to represent an as-

tral event. The exegetical method is simple—it requires no great ingenuity to discover in the tradition allusions to Babylonian and other myths, just as the early Christian writers found therein records of profound Christian doctrines. The citation of supposed astralistic hints is carried through the Old Testament with wearisome iteration, and it may suffice to give the treatment of Abraham as a specimen of the method pursued. The stories of the patriarchs, it must be premised, are regarded by Jeremias as historical, but in a modified sense—in their present form they are incomplete and idealized and must be filled out and interpreted from late Jewish and non-Jewish sources and by the insight of the critic. In ancient history the family is not an ethnological division; Abraham was father of the family not in an ethnological but in a spiritual sense. He was a warrior and a Mahdi (a man divinely guided), a reformer whose migration from Babylonia was connected with a protest against existing religious error, perhaps against degeneration in moon-worship, perhaps against the cult of Marduk introduced by the Hammurabi dynasty—in any case merely a protest against polytheism, not a rejection of the astral system, as is evident from the astral mythological motifs introduced into the narrative of his life. These are specially prominent because he (with Lot) is the founder of a new era. His earlier name, Abram ("the [divine] father is exalted"), points to the moon-god, Sin, who is often styled "father"; the other name also, Abraham, "father of tumult," would correspond to Sin's title, "warrior of the gods"; add that the name Sarai, "princess," agrees with the title of the moon-goddess of Harran, and the name Milka (Abram's sister-in-law) with an epithet of Ishtar; and "Laban" signifies "moon." In the stories of Abraham there are moon-motifs: the number 318 (Gen. xiv, 14) is not historic, but a mythological construction—it is the number of days in the lunar year when the moon is visible and its light wars against darkness—so Abram has 318 companions in his battle with enemies; further, in Gen. xiv, the Canaanite kings serve the King of Elam twelve years and in the thirteenth year rebel—now, twelve days must be added to equalize the lunar year with the solar, the thirteenth day begins the new year, and Abram begins a new age; and he, like the moon, is a wanderer.

If the astral theory were accepted it would add nothing to our knowledge of the real history of religion. It throws no light on the origin and nature of religious customs, the characters and functions of deities, and the course of religious progress, and it solves no historical problems. If the questions be asked whether Abram went down into Egypt, or Joseph ruled in that land, or the He-

brew tribes migrated thence to Canaan, we must look elsewhere for answers, as, in fact, Dr. Jeremias himself in certain points appeals to non-astralistic considerations. The "Teaching" gives merely the astrological and mythological setting of narratives—the details are regarded as inventions, though the tradition is assumed to be trustworthy. For the existence of the "Teaching" proof is not forthcoming. It is true that Babylonian astronomy and astrology passed beyond the bounds of Babylonia, and that there were in Western Asia, as in all the world, cosmogonic myths in which the gods and the heavenly bodies figured, and mythical stories of heroes in which the real and the imaginary were sometimes mingled. But for a system of historical writing in which persons and events were described after the norm of astral occurrences, there is no evidence in the Babylonian or the Hebrew or any other literature. Since the Babylonians made careful records of celestial phenomena and constructed an elaborate science of divination by the liver of sacrificed animals, it would be hardly too much to expect, if such a system existed, to find references to it in the inscriptions, or at least some hint or recognition of it; but nothing of the sort is known in Babylonian or Hebrew records. Cosmic myths there are in the Old Testament (the combat of Yahweh with Rahab, for example, as in Isa. li. 9, and elsewhere), and certain favorite numbers (7, 12, 40) may have been suggested by astral phenomena, though the origin of such numbers is obscure; but the existence of these conceptions is far from warranting the assumptions of the theory under consideration. So as to the alleged expectation of a divinely guided redeemer. All over the world saviours of society have arisen from time to time, natural products of their times, and naturally were thought to have been raised up by some deity, but there is no sign that the expectation of such deliverers was a dogma of an ancient universal creed. Here, as in other points, Dr. Jeremias has taken some simple facts of ordinary human terrestrial experience, invested them with celestial clothing, and forcibly made them into a symmetrical, all-embracing, all-explaining, and universally accepted system of the world. It is obvious that he thus does violence to the proper method of historical investigation and misrepresents the course of religious development.

Canon Johns in his introduction mingles warnings judiciously with praise. He goes as far as possible in the recognition of the merits of these volumes, sometimes, indeed, too far, but repeatedly cautions the reader against accepting the author's astral theory at present. He appears to think it possible that additional discoveries may favor the theory; he might have pointed out its fundamental vice, if such crit-

icism would have been proper in an introduction meant to commend the work. The proofreading of the volumes is not good: there are the spellings "sybil" (I, 119) and "sybilline" (I, 131), and "Götterherrin" (which is a correct translation of the Babylonian *belit ilani*) is rendered by "divine lady" instead of by "mistress of the gods" (I, 9).

The History and Problems of Organized Labor. By Frank Tracy Carlton, Ph.D., Professor of Economics and History in Albion College. New York: D. C. Heath & Co.

Professor Carlton has produced in compact and readable form a useful summary of a large amount of literature dealing with many important labor questions. The title of the volume will doubtless seem to many to be somewhat misleading. Four chapters, constituting about one-sixth of the book, do undertake to present the history of labor organizations, but in the United States only. Among the "problems of organized labor" discussed are the following, to each of which a separate chapter is devoted: Immigration, The Sweated Industries, Child Labor, Woman Labor, Protective Legislation for Employees, Industrial Remuneration, and Trade Education. These are topics not to be confined to a treatise on trade-unionism. They are, indeed, the chief social and economic questions which confront modern industrial society; they may be called labor problems, but they are not problems peculiar to organized labor. The volume is designed primarily to serve as a text-book for college classes and is similar in scope to Adams and Sumner's "Labor Problems," which has hitherto enjoyed the advantage of having no competitor.

It is to be frankly conceded that labor unions are not, and probably should not be, mere ethical culture societies. That militant unionism which is so odious to the employing class aims above everything else at improving the economic condition of the working class, and no apology need be demanded or offered on that account, for employers and organizations of employers are equally concerned with their own narrow interests. So much the opponent of unionism may grant, but still protest that it is the *methods*, not the *aims*, of the unions that are anti-social and wholly objectionable. Professor Carlton attempts to answer such charges by making counter-charges of like nature against employers. Restriction of output, for instance, is shown to be a practice common to both employers and employees. Both are actuated by selfish motives; both, of course, may be pursuing a shortsighted policy. The closed shop, also, is not exclusively a trade-union method. "The anti-union shop is closed to the union man. . . . Many bitter opponents of the other

forms of the closed shop are ardent advocates of the anti-union form of the closed shop." The demand for a collective bargain in making the wage contract is not a demand for a privilege, but only for equality. "The refusal on the part of a superintendent of a large factory to bargain with representatives of his employees is as absurd and unreasonable as would be the demand on the part of the employees for direct negotiations with the stockholders of the company represented by the superintendent." And as to coercive methods, "it must not be forgotten . . . that employers are often as brutal as union 'sluggers'; but in a less conspicuous and more impersonal manner."

The question of the validity of law, upon which democracy itself must ultimately depend, is quite neglected in such a balancing of charges and counter-charges. Indeed, Professor Carlton simply assumes that democracy and trade-unionism are identical. Thus, his view of the significance of the labor movement is revealed by the following sentences from his closing chapter on Recent Tendencies:

The industrial world is the last stronghold of the despotic principle. . . . The captains of industry are the industrial analogues of the enlightened despots in the political world of the eighteenth century. . . . Exactly as our forefathers sought to break down absolutism in government, the labor unions of to-day seek through governmental interference and organized strength to break down absolutism in the industrial sphere. The significance of the present struggles between labor and capital is only clearly seen when looked at from this point of view.

Henry II: His Life and Times. By H. Noel Williams. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3.75 net.

It was a real service thus to vulgarize the life and reign of this monarch whose personality seems thus far to have appealed but slightly to either French or English biographical historians. Studies on Henry II are rare. Mr. Williams devotes the opening chapters of his book to a careful review of the vicissitudinous career of Francis in Italy and Spain, with its consequent bearing upon his young son's future life, namely, the Madrilenian captivity and the alliance with the great Florentine family. The long rivalry of Francis with Charles V is elaborately exposed, as is the treason of the Constable of Bourbon and the responsibility of Louise of Savoy for his desperate decision.

It may well be objected that Mr. Williams is wont to be lenient with the women he describes, perhaps too much so, and that other experts in the minutiae of that epoch would show these women in darker tones than he. This is undoubtedly true. Yet he may be quite right in not accepting the dicta of all those who have written before him, and we

probably do well in accepting his discrimination. Be this as it may, his women are shown as it were in a sort of composite historical photograph deduced from the works of those whose authority may be best accepted: in particular, the youthful Catherine de' Medici, the plain, unpopular, submissive Italian girl who was to out-think them all, and her famous rival, Diane de Poitiers, whose name forever is to be linked first with Henry's to the exclusion of her own, as we still see the H and D woven together on the escutcheons of many a Renaissance château in the valley of the Loire.

The great judicial duel of Jarnac and La Chataignerale, with its famous "coup"—for all of which Henry and Diane were primarily responsible—illumined by full citations from contemporary documents, is here related in such fashion that we know much better who was infamous and who was not. The present rehabilitation of Jarnac—though by no means new—may go far toward correcting an opinion only too prevalent.

But Mr. Williams's reputation is so well established by his many earlier works that it is unnecessary to expatiate upon the present volume. The epoch treated is one in which he has previously shown himself thoroughly at home, but never has he borne himself with more self-control, yet with easy confidence, than in his "Henry II." One feels throughout a certain balance and moderation, a breadth of knowledge and a sympathy which perforce commend it.

John Dennis; His Life and Criticism. By H. G. Paul, Ph.D. New York: Columbia University Press, Lemcke & Buechner. \$1.25.

Dennis is chiefly remembered in English literature—so far as he is remembered at all—as one of the enemies and victims of Pope; also in connection with the origin of a well-known phrase, as the man who invented a new kind of stage-thunder and then complained that it had been stolen from him. Perhaps Dennis's best claim to remembrance is that he was one of the first Englishmen to set up as a professional critic. In his "Philosophical Dictionary" Voltaire, after speaking with withering contempt of professional critics in general, says that there was "*un nommé* Dennis, who followed this trade for sixty years at London and got a living out of it, too." (A very thin living, indeed, toward the end.) In the "Tale of a Tub" Dennis appears as a type of the snarling critic descended in straight line from Zoilus. In short, as Dr. Paul admits, Dennis has been mainly cited as a horrible example of a tribe that, as a whole, was under suspicion. In the past twenty years, however, Dr. Paul adds, something of a reaction has begun in Den-

nis's favor. Let us hope that the reaction will not go too far. It should stop well short of the exaggerated and rather eccentric praise of Swinburne, who set Dennis as a critic above Addison, or of Landor, who set him above Dryden. On the very face of it, a man who allied himself with writers like Gildon and Blackmore, against writers like Pope and Swift and Steele, was lacking in critical tact and perceptiveness. The best thing about Dennis is a certain bluff English honesty and downrightness that contrast agreeably with the duplicities of Pope.

In the first half of his book, which is devoted to the life of Dennis, Dr. Paul is, as he says, breaking new ground. His careful investigation adds not only to our knowledge of Dennis, but throws light on the literary manners of the time. The account of the endless squabbles in which Dennis engaged confirms the impression one gets from other sources that these manners were uncommonly bad. In fact, if England has had a truly Augustan age, an age on which the imagination can dwell with some satisfaction, it is the age of Johnson and Reynolds and Goldsmith rather than that of Pope.

The second half of Dr. Paul's book is devoted to Dennis as a critic. In his analysis of the main critical currents of the time and of the general background, Dr. Paul has followed closely, too closely in the reviewer's opinion, Dr. Spingarn. For example, he has, like Dr. Spingarn, failed to distinguish between logic and common sense. An element of confusion is thus introduced into the whole subject, especially into the treatment of Rymer. Common sense, as Dr. Johnson says, is intuitive, whereas Rymer, though he lays claim on several occasions to common sense, is extraordinarily lacking in every kind of intuition. What Rymer really stands for is logical thoroughness; he is the one consistent Aristotelian formalist in English criticism. He applies unflinchingly to the English drama the Aristotelian ideas about the all-importance of the plot and the closely allied notions of rational probability and poetic justice. Next to Dryden, he is the most important figure in English criticism at the end of the seventeenth century, not only in himself but by his actual influence. Dr. Paul errs in assigning this superior position to Dennis.

Dennis is very far from being like Rymer, consistent with himself. His criticism shows many of the same contradictions as that of Dryden, from which, as Dr. Paul says, it is largely derived. The main points of view that conflict more or less with one another in Dryden are evidently three: first, an admiration for the older English writers—"the giant race before the flood"—and their unfettered imaginative activity; second, respect for the French formal-

ists and literary casuists, for what one may term the school of rules; third, regard for the school of wit and taste and good sense (Molière, La Bruyère, Boileau, etc.) that had succeeded the school of rules in France and was attacking its surviving representatives (Chapelain, etc.) as pedants.

Now the same contradictory elements are found in the criticism of Dennis, except that as he grew older he became more of a formalist than Dryden had ever been. Dennis is really a survival of the age of Dryden into the age of Pope and the quarrels in which he became involved, so far as they have other than personal or political grounds, illustrate the divergent points of view of two literary generations. The Queen Anne wits, like the great French wits whom they imitated, waged war, above all, on pedantry (why, by the way, does Dr. Paul say "pedanticism"?). Like the French wits also they had a faith in the unaided tact and intuitions of the man of the world that was a menace to sound learning. And so in the crusade of the wits against the pedants and the "dunces" better men than Dennis had to suffer—Bentley, for example. Pope's attitude toward Dennis was similar to that of Molière toward Vadius. At least as good a case could be made out for the Abbé Ménage, the original of Vadius, as Dr. Paul has made out for Dennis.

Dryden could on occasion defend the somewhat romantic spontaneity of the English imagination against both the wits and the formalists, and Dennis at least aimed to follow him in this particular. For his contemporaries Dennis was, above all, the apostle of poetic rage. We may doubt, however, whether Dennis hearkens back very effectively to the "giant race," or, as Dr. Paul contends, anticipates the modern romanticists. The normal neo-classical attitude toward inspiration is well expressed in the passage that Dr. Paul quotes from Rapin: the poet's "mind must always be serene that he may discern when to let his muse run mad and when to govern his transports." This ridiculous neo-classical notion of madness with a string attached to it, of fury that is governed by rule, of raging in cold blood, is not sufficiently discountenanced by Dennis's theory, and is certainly illustrated in his practice:

What divine Rapture shakes my Soul?
What Fury rages in my Blood,
And drives about the stormy Flood?
What makes my sparkling Eyeballs rowl?
See, see the Goddess of the Lyre
Descending in Tempestuous fire;
Hence ye Profane, be gone, retire.

The poet, according to Dennis, is to be enthusiastic, but under eight heads. The excess of talk about fire over fire itself was so evident in his writings that he was accused by one of his satirists of being "by inspiration furiously dull." He is certainly less readable than sym-

er, with whom one most naturally compares him. One of the sources of Dennis's ideas about the afflatus is indicated by his nickname—Sir Tremendous Longinus. However, the generous and appreciative temper that Longinus recommends in criticism is less conspicuous in Dennis than in Addison.

Dr. Paul's book, like nearly all books in English, is not sufficiently careful in its printing of French words (e. g., "les bons sens," p. 119; "la quarrelle," p. 151; "Desmaretes" for Desmarets, p. 121). Dr. Paul also misquotes an important sentence of Milton: "What decorum is, what are the great masterpieces to observe," instead of "which is the grand masterpiece to observe." The book has an index and a careful chronological list of Dennis's writings, but no table of contents.

Notes

The Scribners have just begun the publication of the Viking edition of Ibsen in thirteen volumes. It is edited by William Archer and the translations are mostly by him also. The volumes will be bound in satene cloth and printed on paper specially prepared. The first two appear this month, Volume I containing "Lady Inger of Ostrat," "The Feast at Solhoug," and "Love's Comedy"; Volume II containing the "Vikings at Helgeland" and "The Pretenders."

In early November the same house will have ready: "Arctic Prairies," by Ernest Thompson Seton; "Memories of Two Wars," by Brig.-Gen. Frederick Funston; a handsomely illustrated "Little Lord Fauntleroy"; "The Common People of Ancient Rome," by Frank Abbott, and a new, enlarged edition of Eli's Paxson Oberholtzer's "Referendum in America," to be called "The Referendum, Initiative, and Recall in America."

Henry Holt expects to publish on November 4: "India Under Curzon and After," by Lovat Fraser; "The Empresses of Rome," by Joseph McCabe, and two new volumes for young folk, being a fourth book by Mrs. Carroll Watson Rankin, "The Castaways of Pete's Patch," and Marryat's "Children of the New Forest," illustrated by Boyd Smith.

Bishop Charles H. Brent's new book, "The Sixth Sense," the publication of which has been several times postponed, is now promised by Huebsch for this month.

Under the title, "Unemployment: A Social Study," Macmillan will shortly issue the results of an investigation carried on by B. Seebohm Rowntree and Bruno Lasker.

Longmans, Green & Co. are bringing out the autobiography of the widow of the Grand Shareef of Wazan.

George Macaulay Trevelyan intends soon to publish, through Longmans, Green & Co., "English Songs of Italian Freedom," for which he has written an introduction and notes.

"Obil, Keeper of Camels," by Lucia Chase Bell; "The Potato Child and Others," by Mrs. Charles J. Woodbury, and "The Tahquitch Maiden," by Phebe Estelle Spald-

ing, will be put forth by Paul Elder & Co. as small gift-books.

The Current Literature Publishing Company has in hand a reproduction of the German classics of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in twenty royal octavo volumes, with about a thousand illustrations. The firm will be assisted by a large advisory board of scholars.

"An American in Germany" is the title of a German conversation book, by E. E. Patou, which is about to be issued by D. C. Heath & Co.

The following books are published this week by Houghton Mifflin Company: "The Spell of the Rockies," by Enos A. Mills; "The Singing Man," by Josephine Preston Peabody; "Emerson's Journals," Volumes V and VI, edited by Edward W. Emerson and Waldo E. Forbes; "Social Value," by Benjamin M. Anderson, jr., and "Harvard Chapel Series," by Francis G. Peabody.

Arthur Lloyd is publishing, this week, through Smith & Elder, the first volume of his work, "The Creed of Half Japan: Historical Sketches of Japanese Buddhism."

"The Oxford Book of German Verse from the Twelfth to the Twentieth Century," edited by Prof. H. G. Fiedler, with notes and preface by Gerhart Hauptmann, both in German, is one of the announcements of the Clarendon Press.

Snowden Ward, one of the vice-presidents of the Dickens Fellowship, is coming to this country to form branches of the fellowship here. On February 7, the centenary of Dickens's birth, he will lecture in Boston on "Charles Dickens and America."

Nelson & Sons of London have in preparation a complete edition of Victor Hugo's works in fifty-one volumes, two volumes to appear every month; the edition will begin with "Les Misérables" in four volumes.

We have received "Webster's New Standard American Dictionary," encyclopedic edition, issued by Laird & Lee of Chicago. The volume, which of course has no connection with "Webster's International Dictionary," produced at Springfield, Mass., has several features which, according to its publishers, bring it strictly up to date. By excluding obsolete words they offer "a practically unabridged dictionary" in portable compass. So in place of *rathe* we have *rubberneck* and for *ferly*, *fan* (a baseball enthusiast). Here, as might be expected, there is inconsistency. *Busk* (to prepare one's self and *buas* (to kiss) have retained their places, while certain slang almost as old as that cited is lacking. Mythological and geographical words are conveniently put in the general vocabulary.

"The Paracelsus of Robert Browning," by Christina Pollock Denison (Baker & Taylor), is designed to facilitate the initiation of students into the twin mysteries of poetry and alchemy. The book is composed of the following parts: pp. 3-34, a sketch of the life and character of Paracelsus; 37-57, a summary of the philosophy of Paracelsus; 61-64, a note on the composition and form of the poem; 67-190, the poem *in extenso*; 193-231, general review of the poem, consisting of excerpts united by prose short-cuts or paraphrases; 225-239, notes and glossary—inconsiderable.

The collection of Lecky's "Historical and Political Essays," first issued by his widow in 1908 (Longmans), has appeared in a new

edition. The essays will all repay reading, though of a varying degree of interest and value. The book notices, on the whole, like those of Lady Blennerhasset's "Madame de Staël" and Leroy-Beaulieu's "Israel Among the Nations," appear perfunctory (some errors in the latter article ought not to have been retained), while the essays on "Thoughts on History" and "Ireland in the Light of History" were, perhaps, best worth preserving. But Lecky was not preëminently an essayist. His "Carlyle's Message to His Age" (Sunday afternoon lecture to working men) inevitably recalls Lowell's brilliant and acute pages on the same subject (in his review of "Frederick the Great"), greatly to the disadvantage of the English historian.

"Siberia: A Record of Travel, Climbing, and Exploration" (Scribner), by Samuel Turner, which originally appeared in 1905, has reached a second edition. As the record of a winter journey, mainly undertaken for business purposes, but resulting in a daring exploration of the Altai Mountains, and the ascent of the Belukha to the height of 14,000 feet, this volume is quite unique. Mr. Turner describes minutely Siberia's dairy industry, in which he is chiefly interested, and the development of which he holds to be of great importance alike to Siberia and to Great Britain. His modesty, fairmindedness, and keenness of observation are conspicuous throughout the book, which will retain its place in the literature of travel. It is, therefore, to be regretted that his statistics, which relate to the year 1903, were not brought up to date in the new edition.

The French alone, apparently, can write on mysterious subjects without adding to them a fog of their own. Una Birch, in her "Secret Societies and the French Revolution" (Lane), certainly shows that, as Lowell says, "to be misty is not to be mystic." It is impossible to get a coherent story or a clear picture from her pages, in spite of her learning, genuine or doubtful. Her touch-and-go method may not be out of place in dealing with such shadowy characters as Saint-Germain and Cagliostro, but it becomes irritating when substantial historical and literary celebrities appear upon the scene. Francis Bacon is gravely classed among the Rosicrucians, and "altar and throne" are held as fully responsible for the death of Cagliostro in the Inquisitor's prison as for the guillotining of the writer Cazotte and the persecution of the Perfectionist Weishaupt. The author moves in a world of conjectures and surmises. The criminal procedure embodied in the Code Napoléon "seems" to her "to have been evolved out of the conclaves" of the lodge of the "Neuf Soeurs"; and "is it incredible," she asks (her questions are many and comprehensive), "that Madame de Staël, in her many interviews with men of letters, such as Goethe, Schiller, and Schlegel, . . . should have influenced foreign views of Napoleon?" She evidently takes the "many" interviews with Goethe and Schiller and their serious import for granted, just as she seems not to doubt that the Comte de Saint-Germain made a "judicious bestowal" to Louis XV of "pictures by Velasquez and Murillo." But, after all, what is true in history? Perhaps some day, the author hopes, we shall know whether Saint-Germain was, "as men have so often called

him, a charlatan, or whether he was, as some believe him to have been, a political genius of unrivalled ambition and great accomplishment." When she descends to solid ground, we ought to add, as in the essay on "Religious Liberty and the French Revolution," she becomes clearer and more restrained.

The "American Political Ideas" of John Fiske are reprinted by Houghton Mifflin Co. The "Story of a New England Town" has been included, and the whole is prefaced by an introduction of seventy-five pages by John Spencer Clark. The three chapters which make up the "American Political Ideas" were originally delivered as lectures before the Royal Institution of Great Britain in 1880. The introduction gives us some interesting letters written by Fiske to his wife in June of the preceding year, when he delivered six lectures at University College, London, on the subject of America's place in history. It was the success of these lectures that led Huxley to engage Fiske for the Royal Institution. Aside from these letters, the introduction is mainly devoted to a discussion of the lectures as "an embodiment of style in literary art." It is shown at somewhat too great length how they exemplify all the textbook rules of Economy, Simplicity, Sequence, Climax, and Variety. Mr. Clark yields to no one in admiration of Fiske, and clearly regards him as one of America's greatest historians, as well as a literary genius of the first water. Fiske was certainly a writer of excellent English, and he must have been a fascinating lecturer. Being something of a philosopher, he was partial to those "large general ideas" which it is now the fashion to cry down. He knew a good deal about all periods of history, and the title of the lectures here printed was exactly suited to him—"American Political Ideas Viewed from the Standpoint of Universal History." Hence, he was suggestive rather than profound, striking rather than original or subtle in his thinking, apt at hitting upon analogies rather than penetrating in his insight. One suspects that Fiske was often guilty of the terrible crime of getting an idea first and then finding the facts to support it. He charged his subject without ever fully realizing its hidden difficulties, and had always the air of coming through at top speed, triumphant, with colors flying. Certainly, his work was immensely worth while. His books will be read when those of many more erudite historians are forgotten; and, after all, it is not easy to point out the value of histories that nobody reads. Fiske's faith in the ultimate federation of Europe gives his book an additional interest at the present time.

Wall Street has been put into a little volume of less than seventy pages by Garet Garrett, who has drawn upon material contributed by him to the columns of the *Evening Post*. In "Where the Money Grows" (Harpers), Wall Street types, manners, and superstitions are sketched with a rapid, incisive stroke by one who is evidently familiar with his subject and has learned the art of easy narrative. Wall Street is largely a tenebrous region, and not alone to the outsider. The men who have their life and being there are apparently the creatures of queer theories,

traditions, fears, and habits to which they subscribe without understanding, and so go on making or losing money without very well knowing how or why. As an antidote to popular conceptions of Wall Street routine based on the revelations of Thomas W. Lawson and Charles Klein, such a delightful bit as Mr. Garrett's sketch of a bank president at work is extremely effective. It would be interesting to see the writer's graceful wit applied to broader themes.

Miss Mary White Ovington's monograph on the negro in New York ("Half a Man"; Longmans) is marked by frankness and thorough knowledge. It was feared that, as one of the founders of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People and long a worker among the colored people of New York, she might let her sympathies override her judgment. This proves not to be the case. She in no wise glosses over the negro's weaknesses, but, after stating them, dwells on the conditions which make for immorality among the women, for laziness and inefficiency or crime among the men. The picture is the drama of a worthy race struggling upward under most difficult conditions. Economically so handicapped that comparatively few men can earn enough to support their families without aid from their wives, discriminated against at every turn by the labor unions, and barred from most places of resort for harmless amusement, those of slight moral stamina fall readily. When one considers also that there was virtually no marriage relation any one was bound to respect among the race until after emancipation, it is not surprising that the colored women as yet fall short of the standards of virtue of the white. The high percentage of improper guardianship among the negroes, and the grave number of depraved negro girls which Miss Ovington records, show where the work must be done in the immediate future if the race is to be helped. As for the labor question, Miss Ovington rightly points out that "North or South the negro gets an opportunity to work where he is imperatively needed." But just as soon as he can the white man pushes the black man toward jobs for which he himself does not care to compete. Hence many honest places are closed to the negro, but the avenues to vice and crime never. But despite this, Miss Ovington finds that the bulk of the negroes who struggle for life in the great city have procured regular work and a fairly steady, if poor, pay. To the majority of them the North, in Miss Ovington's words, "seems to have brought something of liberty and happiness." Particularly the colored musicians and entertainers seem to get on well, and the extraordinary success of actors of the high standard of Williams and Walker, and Cole and Johnson, is here set forth.

Where many despond about the future for the city-bred negro, Miss Ovington is optimistic. She records that his prospect "begins to be bright." Through the vast streams of Jewish and Latin immigrants she feels that New York may be helped beyond its provincialism that now spells bitter prejudice. "If New York really becomes a cosmopolitan city, let us believe," she writes, "the negro will bring to it his highest genius and will walk through it simply and quietly unnoticed, a man among men." To many this will seem the wish which is father to the thought; they will

fear that the antipathy of race manifested lately in Coatesville and almost every section of the country will more readily affect the newcomers to New York than be changed by the views of foreigners. But democracy is on trial in New York city, as well as the country over, more than the colored man. The question is simply whether those of white skin who are rising in the social and industrial scale shall be permitted to thrust back those who are toiling up after them. That is the issue, and we fancy its solution will come even a little more slowly in our cities than in our rural districts. But that it will be solved no one ought to doubt. Such sane, wise, and sympathetic studies as Miss Ovington's contribute not a little thereto.

"Erinnerungen: von Ernst Freiherrn von Plener" (Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlagsanstalt) is the exceedingly interesting autobiography of a prominent Austrian, politician, political economist, and diplomatist. He was born in 1841, the son of the distinguished Austrian statesman Ignaz von Plener, from whom he not only inherited excellent qualities, but also received a careful and in every respect commendable training. The first volume, just issued, contains reminiscences of his youth and early education and a record of his connection with the Austrian Embassies in Paris and London from 1865 to 1873. During this period he associated intimately with the most eminent persons in both countries, and his characterizations of these representatives of French and English literature, science, and national culture constitute the most attractive and instructive part of the memoirs.

Lady Elizabeth Herbert of Lea, biographer, author of many short stories, and of books of travel, is dead at her home in London. She was the mother of the late Sir Michael Herbert, who was ambassador to Washington, and widow of Sidney Herbert, war minister at the time of the Crimean war. Among her books we note: "Rambles Round the World," "Wayside Tales," and "Lives of Monsignor Dupanloup, Garcia Moreno, St. John Baptist de Rossi, and Mother Teresa Dubouché."

Harper's Magazine for November has the opening chapters of a Life of Mark Twain by Albert Bigelow Paine, whom Mr. Clemens designated as his official biographer. Mr. Paine, like his predecessors in the same field, labors under the disadvantage of being forced to compete against the vast amount of biographical matter supplied by Mark Twain himself in his novels, travel volume and separate sketches, numberless public addresses, and the long series of uncoordinated reminiscences published in the *North American Review*. There is little left for the formal biographer except to systematize and elaborate. Mr. Paine gives a pleasing account of the boyhood of Mark Twain. It is the story of a lad of ordinary promise, with more than ordinary capacities for mischief, and a decided gift for leadership. The origins of "Tom Sawyer" and "Huckleberry Finn" are traced. Two characteristic stories of Mark Twain are quoted. On page 492 of an edition of Suetonius, which Mr. Clemens was fond of reading, there is reference to a certain Plavius Clemens, who was notorious "for his want of energy." In the margin Mark Twain

wrote: "I guess this is where our line starts." Speaking of the family's migrations, Mark Twain once said: "In 1843 my father caught me in a lie. It is not this fact that gives me the date, but the house we lived in. We were there only a year."

In the same number of *Harper's*, Professor Lounsbury announces his profound aversion and contempt for theme-writing as a means of instruction in English composition, and for the underlying theory that it is necessary to make every college man into a writer. He makes the classic argument that the sense of style is inborn and that it is developed, as far as it can be developed, by the study and contemplation of the great masters of literature. Setting undergraduates to write badly, and then having their errors corrected by incompetent instructors, strikes Professor Lounsbury as a very futile business. The writer begins with the statement that he expects nobody to agree with him. We hasten to be among the first to realize this expectation. The case is sadly overstated. There is no ground for assuming that it is the aim of the college to turn every undergraduate into a "writer" in the professional sense. "There is no more reason or necessity for it," says Professor Lounsbury, "than there is for every man to become a mathematician or a musician or an architect or an engineer or a painter." But as it happens, our letters to our wives, our children, and our business associates are not couched in simple equations or in water-colors, but in words; and that is true of our Ph.D. theses, our applications for a job, and our announcements of an intention to run for the Legislature. Writers of this kind the world needs and the colleges can help to make.

The Century has a one-act play by the late W. S. Gilbert, of a type we do not readily associate with the author of "Pinafore" and "The Mikado." It is entitled "The Hooligan," and deals with the last hours of a murderer condemned to be hanged. Aside from the emotional clutch inherent in the subject, we find no special qualities of observation, instruction, or dramatic impetus in this little piece.

Mary Austin's article in the *American Magazine*, on why the New Theatre failed, is the most thoughtful discussion we have seen on this vexed subject. Mrs. Austin contends that the management of the New Theatre made a fatal mistake when it tried to be practical. "The business of the New Theatre was to lose money." To realize the aims of its founders and the best aspirations to which it gave birth, it should have searched out and fostered the kind of art that the commercial manager was either too timid or too uneducated to encourage. "It should stand on its subsidy as on a watch-tower to catch from afar off intimations of dawning genius, of new appreciations, to serve as a mark for the perplexed and doubtful private manager." But instead of being a guide, the New Theatre became an imitator. It produced plays whose popularity had been proved in private theatres or new plays which promised to be popular because they were like the plays being produced by the private managers.

The sub-title chosen by Louise Collier Willcox for her paper on Nietzsche, in the *North American Review*, "A Doctor for Sick Souls," is not a happy description of

one who by the author's own account was a physician who failed to cure himself, and whose methods were those of Christian Science. To those of us who are not Christian Scientists, the implication is not as laudatory as the writer may imagine. We have here no attempt at a formal estimate of Nietzsche, but a chapter of casual comment, from which emerges the rather interesting point that in his asseveration of the triumph of life over death and joy over pain, Nietzsche was at one with the great religions that he attacked.

In this number of the *North American Review* Arthur Benington, vice-president of the New York branch of the Dante Alighieri Society announces the forthcoming publication of a book on Dante which promises to work a revolution in its field. The author is Professor Paolo Amaducci of Rovigo, and his theory is, in few words, that Dante's journey, "from its beginning in the dark wood to its end in the Empyrean," is an image of the journey of the children of Israel from Egypt to the Promised Land as allegorically interpreted in a work of St. Peter Damian, "De quadragesima et quadraginta duabus Hebraeorum mansionibus." The "Divina Commedia" to be properly understood must be divided into forty-two marches and stopping places (mansions), "each march and resting place having the same allegorical meaning that St. Peter Damian assigns to those of the Israelites."

Science

"A Handbook of Health," by Dr. Woods Hutchinson, and "The Teaching of High School Mathematics," by George W. Evans, are in the list of Houghton Mifflin Co.

The eighteenth session of the International Congress of Americanists will be held in London from May 27 to June 1.

Recent progress in agricultural research and its effect in increasing the wealth of this country through the introduction of new plant industries is admirably shown in the *National Geographic Magazine* for October, by David Fairchild, agricultural explorer of the Department of Agriculture. Our plant immigrants are 31,000, and those on which he lays the most stress are the mango, date, and bamboo. The various stages in the cultivation, harvesting, and preparation for market of coffee are described by Prof. R. DeC. Ward of Harvard, who visited the famous coffee district of São Paulo for the purpose of obtaining this information. Some interesting facts about old Württemberg are given by B. H. Buxton, and an account of excursions in the interior of Tahiti, by Prof. H. W. Smith of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

"Animal Intelligence," experimental studies (Macmillan), by Edward L. Thorndike, is a reprint of material which has appeared before, with the exception of two essays, "Laws and Hypotheses of Behavior," and "The Evolution of the Human Instinct." In the former essay, Professor Thorndike enunciates laws governing response to a given situation. In themselves they are not novel, as they may be deduced from the law of association; his applica-

tion of them, however, to genetic psychology is interesting. It is his belief that the child learns to speak rather by connecting certain sounds with pleasant results, than by direct imitation of a teacher. Certain sounds, such as "th," cannot be learned by imitation. From among the great number of responses with which the infant replies to a stimulus, it sooner or later hits upon the correct one by accident, and in the course of time selects it, being impelled to do so by no other force than its previous association with a pleasant result. The great majority of responses are instinctive or habitual, and are not caused by the ideas of them. The latter part of the argument requires no comment; as regards voluntary acts, psychologists have never held that the idea, apart from the particular volition, was capable of causing itself to be carried into effect, while with reactions which are more or less distinctly reflex the truth of the author's statement is beyond question. The second essay deals with accidental production and conscious selection of fit responses in the higher sphere of intellectual action, where habit has in a large degree replaced instinct.

Nearly five hundred years ago the Italian physician Mercurialis categorically affirmed that flies carried secretions from diseased bodies to food, and that persons were thus infected. Since that time it has often been suggested that contagion may be transmitted in this way, but it is only within the past decade that the theory has been seriously entertained by a large proportion of medical men. One of the most active among those who have accumulated data in recent years to prove the case against the house fly is our government entomologist, Dr. L. O. Howard. In "The House Fly—Disease Carrier" (Stokes), Dr. Howard has brought together, in a volume of above three hundred pages, not only the results of his own investigations and those of his colleagues, but also critical reviews of all the important work bearing upon his subject. The five chapters treat the zoological position, life history, and habits of the house fly, its natural enemies, its agency in the carriage of disease, remedies and preventive measures, and other flies frequenting houses. A bibliography of 136 titles includes the more important papers and is the more useful for not attempting to list the multitudinous popular compilations. Since the chief danger from the house fly is that it may develop in and feed on human excrement, and thus convey pathogenic organisms, an important feature of the book is the inclusion of two appendices summarizing the valuable recent papers of Dr. Stiles on disposal of night soil. The illustrations throughout are excellent, many of them being new. The author ranks high not only as an investigator but as a popularizer of scientific results, but unfortunately the present volume is not as readable and concise as, for instance, his "Mosquito Book," and the opening chapter will probably seem to the general reader appallingly technical. The medical man and the entomologist will overlook this feature, for the book is a veritable mine of authoritative information.

"The Lore of the Honey Bee" (Dutton), by Tickner Edwardes, unites the science and poetry of bee-keeping to an unusual degree. On the practical side there has

been no want of treatises, such as Cook's "Manual of the Apilary" and A. I. Root's "A, B, C of Bee-Keeping," which set forth the facts of bee life as they bear upon the production of honey and the principles of scientific apiculture. Each generation has also its romance of the hive, such as Maeterlinck's "Life of the Bee," which is pleasing literature and delicately disguised advocacy of radical social theory, but which sins on almost every page against the facts known to every practical worker among bees. Mr. Edwardes, on the contrary, is both scientist and man of letters, and his little book is fitted to delight the lover of the simple, quiet things of gardens and small fields. His pages give no offence to the most thoroughly trained apiculturist, and, indeed, abound with suggestions which are not likely to be superfluous to many who know how to make an apilary profitable. The book is written for English beekeepers, and many of the practical suggestions need modification for our American seasons, but apiculturists of any climate who have caught the real spirit of the calling will be grateful to one who knows alike the methods which have followed Huber's observation hives and the more subtle lessons which gentle Virgil caught when he sought "the ways of lowly quiet, while great Caesar hurried war's lightnings by high Euphrates."

The "Aéro-Manuel" of Ch. Faroux and Et. Bernard (Paris: Dunod & Pinat) will appeal to every one interested in aviation. The first part is devoted to an aeronautic chronology from the fourth century B. C. to the present day, and contains cuts of dirigibles and aeroplanes. A record of the aviation year, from May, 1909, to April, 1910, follows, and after that comes a list of events, with prizes and winners, times, distances, and elevations for the same year. Records follow of airmen, who have stayed up longer than an hour, then a list of victims, of new inventions to 1910. Part II will attract the general amateur, because it contains first, a dictionary (illustrated) of aviation terms, in reality a compact encyclopædia; and next a chapter of technical notes and tables. But these notes call for a very considerable equipment of mechanics for their proper digestion. Part III is nothing more nor less than a sort of "Who's Who" of the world of aviation, giving as it does a general alphabetical list of all constructors, merchants, agents, professionals, amateurs, societies, publications, etc., from the earliest days of ballooning to our own times, with portraits of notabilities. The organic and social side is represented by a list of clubs, the names and addresses of the members of the French clubs being given in full.

Harvard College Observatory has just issued a pamphlet in memoriam of Williamina Paton Fleming, curator of astronomical photographs in the Observatory. At the time of her death last May, she had completed thirty years of service, constant and unwearying. Beginning with ordinary computing, she advanced by great patience and talent to one of the most important positions in the Observatory. One of her remarkable pieces of work was the great Draper Catalogue, which gave the class of spectra of above 10,000 brightest stars, with measures of their photographic light. From her examination of these plates, taken

at Cambridge and at the Harvard Southern station at Arequipa, Peru, she discovered ten of the seventeen new stars known to have appeared within the last quarter century, as well as above 300 variable stars. The list of her achievements would fill many pages, in addition to an immense amount of tedious administrative routine work, necessarily unrecorded, and proofreading of the *Annals* as they went through the press. Even the titles of the work she had nearly but not quite completed make an astonishing list.

John P. Waring, the author of many inventions, died on Monday in New York city. During the civil war, in which he saw much service, he discovered an improved method of spiking cannon. Later, he devised an economical system of separating silk from the cocoon, and invented a rock-drill and an air compressor. He was the holder of seventy-seven patents.

James Hoban Sands, rear-admiral United States navy, who died at his home in Washington on Friday of last week, distinguished himself in the civil war and in much service since that time. He was retired in 1907. From 1905 to 1907 he was superintendent of the Naval Academy.

Drama

The Plays and Poems of George Chapman. The Tragedies. Edited with Introduction and Notes by Thomas Marc Parrott. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$2 net.

This is the first volume of the three which Professor Parrott has planned; the second will have the comedies, and the third the poems, together with a general introduction, a glossary, and a bibliography. The plan, as outlined, has the compass and workings of a definitive edition; and, indeed, to produce at this day anything far short of that would merit reproach from all sides. For the past quarter of a century and more an army of scholars, fledgling and fledgling, have grubbed to the very dregs of this famous period and have placed within an editor's reach materials for thoroughgoing generalizations. The grubbing will doubtless go on, but if Mr. Parrott's book may be taken to indicate that there is also to be an in-gathering and sifting of researches in the form of large but convenient and accurate studies, then the time has come to rejoice.

Few more stimulating figures of that age could have been chosen for a study of this sort than that of George Chapman. For, while falling behind the greatest of his day, he has considerably more than historic value. The point is: Chapman had ideas and a philosophy of life. His pages are encrusted with Bacon-like nuggets of his own thinking. He presents at the same time the tragedy of such other strongly individual men as Ben Jonson and John Donne; if all three had been less themselves and more Elizabethan, or even still less Elizabethan and more themselves, they

would have achieved a larger success in literature. In none was there that balance of forces and sympathies which reflects and grasps the many-sidedness of one's age; and yet, oddly, each had sufficient versatility to crave expression in a variety of forms. Whether, like Jonson especially, Chapman was too learned to adapt himself to immediate conditions is one aspect of the problem. The learning of Shakespeare, we may assume, was of the traditional sort which runs easily into the moulds of art; Jonson's and Chapman's excess may have pushed their personalities inartistically to the front. Whether, again like Jonson, literary fashions lured him into mediums for which he was not quite suited, is another important but doubtful point. At one moment it is hard not to feel that if Chapman had written "The Revenge of Bussy d'Ambois," let us say, not as drama but as formal treatises in ethics and metaphysics, he might to-day be a monument in the history of philosophic thought. One can never be sure. In other instances, notably in the first of the Bussy plays, his grasp of dramatic situation, and his ability to present certain intangible ironies which only that form will express, are unmistakable. Or was his best talent epic? Chapman gives one constantly the impression of being bigger than his works and of being ruined by a cursed inarticulacy not so much of his own making as imposed by the genius of his age. Such a figure makes a strong human appeal and plagues one's desire to gather up his true greatness securely from amid the ruin of his many half-successes.

The plan which Mr. Parrott has set before himself leaves little to be desired. He has wisely deferred the general introduction until he shall have gone over critically the entire body of Chapman's works. In so doing, he has not slighted the apparatus for the preceding volumes, if we may judge by the one volume which has appeared. In nearly two hundred finely-printed pages of notes are found, in connection with each play, an introduction, chiefly historical, but with a bit of more general appreciation, too; an elaborate commentary, and a special section giving the evidence for the editor's choice of numerous textual readings. The need of a trustworthy text is indicated by the fact that not since 1875 has a complete edition of Chapman appeared, and that upon this careless text was based the well-known Mermaid selections. Under the circumstances, the present editor may well regret, as he does, the large number of errata which have crept into his own text and have had to be corrected on a preliminary page. The commentaries reveal a vast amount of industry in running down the allusions to Chapman's widely ranging mind, but to do this was far easier than to disen-

tangle his often crabbed thought. The editor has frankly given up certain cases, and in many others, for all his ingenuity, has fallen short of the truth. In general, however, his explanations are helpful and precise. We note in the introductions a praiseworthy attempt to consider the material not only in its relation to Chapman, but to other European writers who have handled it. The following instance illustrates Professor Parrott's occasional tendency to be rigid in inference:

Chapman, the reader of the play will have noticed, has departed in one material incident from the historic account of Bussy's death. Curiously enough, Dumas makes the same alteration of facts. Both the English poet and the French novelist make Monsieur, not the King, the direct informant of Monsoreau, and both attribute Monsieur's wrath against his old favorite to his discovery of the fact that Bussy had outstripped him in the race for the favors of Monsoreau's wife. It is most unlikely that this common departure from history should be a mere coincidence, and it is quite incredible that Dumas, or the collaborator who supplied him with the materials for *La Dame de Monsoreau*, should have been acquainted with Chapman's play. It seems probable, therefore, that there should have been some common source as yet unknown.

In point of fact, the advantage derived from making this slight change is obvious; and though it may, of course, have been made before Chapman's day, we fail to see the need or assuming that to Dumas it should not have occurred independently.

A sixth, revised and enlarged edition of Edward Everett Hale, jr.'s, "Dramatists of To-day" is announced by Holt.

"An Actor's Note-Books: being some Memoirs, Friendships, Criticisms, and Experiences of Frank Archer" contains, according to Stanley Paul, the publisher, who announces it, memories of Tennyson, Tom Taylor, Wilkie Collins, Salvini, Mary Anderson, Irving, and others.

Sir Herbert Tree has appointed Wednesday, November 8, for the production of Israel Zangwill's new play, "The God of War," which is understood to be an appeal for the application of Christian principles to international relations.

Cyril Maude has procured for the London Haymarket Theatre, the "Papa" of Messrs. de Flers and de Caillavet, a three-act comedy which has had a long run in Paris. The plot is founded on the rivalry between father and son for the hand of an heiress, and the success of the older man. The boy, however, is provided with a suitable sweetheart, and the ending is happy as usual. The piece will require some modification, it is said, for the English stage.

For the purposes of copyright, Justin Huntly McCarthy recently gave, in London, a performance of a play just finished by him, entitled "The Fair Irish Maid." It is founded upon his novel of the same name. The scene is laid first in Ireland, and then in London, in the years 1814-15. The hero-

ine, the last of an old and ruined family, suddenly finds herself the heiress to almost unlimited wealth. This unexpected good fortune makes her for a season the Queen of London, and brings her many experiences, humorous and pathetic. It is wholly a love-story, and the historical events of the year of Waterloo have no direct influence upon the characters.

Here is an indication of the magnitude of Professor Reinhardt's spectacle to be produced in the London Olympia at Christmas. The scene represents the interior of a huge Gothic cathedral. During the intermezzo the doors are opened and the spectator sees a band of huntsmen, with their horses and dogs, traversing a lofty mountain. But to give due effect to the picture it has become clear that the mountain must be in the middle of the arena. To accomplish this Reinhardt and the scenic designer have arranged to build up a huge mountain capable of supporting hundreds of persons, and larger in circumference than almost any stage in London. This is to be equipped with motor power, so that it may be easily moved from one end of the building to the other.

The death is announced of Ernst Hartmann, a leading member of the Burgtheater, at the age of sixty-seven. His death is a severe loss for Viennese theatregoers and for the Imperial House of Comedy, since he was, after the death of Sonnenthal, the only surviving representative of the classical traditions of the Austrian stage. Among the characters in which he excelled was that of Petruchio in "The Taming of the Shrew" and of Benedick in "Much Ado About Nothing."

Music

Family Letters of Richard Wagner.

Translated by William Ashton Ellis.
New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.35 net.

More Mastersingers. By Filson Young.
New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.35 net.

In Germany there are many singers and other musicians whose specialty is the interpretation of Wagner's music. In England there is an author who seems to be devoting his whole life to writing an exhaustive biography of Wagner and translating his essays and the thousands of letters he wrote. Six volumes have already been published of William Ashton Ellis's "Life of Richard Wagner," and the work is still announced as being "in progress." Then there are eight volumes of prose works which Mr. Ellis has turned into English, with prefaces and annotations. Of the letters, he has translated those addressed by Wagner to his first wife, those to Mathilde Wesendonck, to her husband, and to Emil Heckel (this includes a brief history of the Bayreuth festivals). Doubtless he would have also Englished the letters to Liszt, Uhlig, and so on, had not others preceded him.

Two years ago, in the preface to his

version of Wagner's letters to his first wife, Mr. Ellis expressed the hope that the demand for them would be sufficiently great to encourage him to supplement that volume by "an English rendering of the delightful 'Familien-briefe.'" Evidently this wish was gratified; and to make the family letters accessible to a still larger number he persuaded the publisher to issue this collection at a price within the means of all who crowd the cheaper sections of the house at performances of Wagner's works, or take the most modest of parts in their representation. It has been said that these family letters may be regarded as a supplement to the autobiography, but that is true of all the letters of Wagner, for he is always in them talking about himself and his works. Being written while the incidents were fresh and his nerves still vibrating, the letters present his experiences and his individuality more vividly than the reminiscences dictated in after years. In those to members of his family, in particular, as the translator justly remarks, "no possible suspicion of attitudinizing can arise in the mind of the most inveterate carper." Their writer appears in them true to life, and on the whole the picture they present will please those who love Wagner the man, with all his faults, as much as they love his music and his poems, with all their weaknesses.

Goethe's "himmelhoch jauchzend, zum Tode betrübt" might be put as a motto on the title-page of this volume of letters. Half the time the writer of them seems to be in a condition which he describes in these words: "My nerves are so terribly sensitive, they are always vibrating, either engendering the acme of pleasure or the deepest depression and pain." The pleasure is rare and fleeting; "the feeling of pain, anxiety, prostration, harassment, is the constantly abiding state." At times, as when he was writing his Nibelung poems, he could work only two hours a day, and even that, he writes, he could "only accomplish by lying down for another two after my work and trying to sleep a bit; if sleep doesn't come, that day is done for." "A whole night's sleep is the heavenliest blessing I know; I often take a deal of pains preparing it." But he is getting on in years, and consoles himself for all his troubles by reflecting that "the most passionate natures have often first learned comfort in old age." If the diagnosis of his troubles made by the eminent American oculist, Dr. George M. Gould, is correct a pair of spectacles would have ended his sufferings, for the mysterious affliction which he tried in so many different ways to cure was simply eyestrain.

That Mr. Ellis's translation is accurate and retains much of the individuality of the original it is hardly

necessary to say. His index also is, as usual, a model. Under Wagner he classifies the allusions made to childhood and youth, to his regret at having no children (Siegfried was born later), to copyrights, dogs, exile, and amnesty, hack-work, health, marriage, pianoforte, politics, reading, women, etc., the largest number of entries being under abode, money-matters, and self-analysis. The appendix contains Glaserapp's notes on the recipients of the family letters—his mother, two brothers, four sisters, one half-sister, and several nieces. Glaserapp believes that a considerable number of family letters, written before Wagner had become famous, were not preserved. The first letter is dated 1832, the last 1874. The translator has added biographic notes where they help to elucidate the contents of the letters. Those who believe that Wagner was the son of his mother's second husband will find confirmation of their view in this sentence, on p. 279, written to his "half-sister," Cäcilie: "To me it seems as if our father Geyer believed he was atoning for a trespass by his sacrifice for the whole family," which is preceded by the sentence: "I believe I see perfectly clear now, even though I feel it extremely difficult to express my view of that relation."

The Old Age of Richard Wagner is the title of a chapter in Filson Young's latest collection of essays, "More Mastersingers." Mr. Young is familiar with this subject, having previously written a whole book on Wagner's operas. In the new chapter he does not discuss the composer's last years, but pleads for an improved staging of his works at Bayreuth and elsewhere, and for excisions. He holds that Wagner's music is for all time, that his influence on the world is still growing, but that the operas will age unless they are presented in new garb worthy of their beauty. In a chapter on The Art of the Conductor Mr. Young gives a vivid account of the revolution in orchestral and operatic interpretation effected by Wagner; but he forgets to add that this change was due quite as much to Liszt's example as to Wagner's. Some of the "new-style" conductors, including two Englishmen, Landon Ronald and Henry Wood, are considered in detail as to their methods. Other chapters, all of them worth reading, are entitled Debussy, The Two Westminsters, the Music of the Salon (an expression he uses in a much wider and more exalted sense than is customary), The Place of Music in Modern Life, which he thinks is not so much to be a child of the time—to stimulate the strenuousness and emotional fever of modern life—as to be a haven of refuge from it, into which we may escape in hours of heaviness or oppression.

Fritz Kreisler, all violin players will be

delighted to hear, has recently brought out an edition, edited by himself, of Beethoven's sonatas for piano and violin.

On the anniversary of the birthday of the late Edward MacDowell, December 18, there will be held at Carnegie Hall a MacDowell Festival Concert, in honor of America's greatest composer. E. S. Brown, who is managing the concert, has engaged the Volpe Symphony Orchestra, Arnold Volpe conducting, to assist, and among the soloists will be Augustus Cottlow, the eminent pianist, long recognized as MacDowell's most enthusiastic interpreter; Gardner Lamson, bass baritone, an American singer who has been for many years in opera in Germany; Rosa Linde, a well-known contralto; Nellie Wright, soprano, and Paul Dufault, tenor.

Wagner lowered his orchestra in Bayreuth, whereas in "Parsifal" he put his chorus up into the cupola for a celestial effect. Acting on this latter hint, they are preparing, in Berlin, for production at Christmas, a huge pantomime, with chorus and acting, for which Humperdinck is writing the music, and which is to be a sort of modern adaptation of the mediæval miracle plays or mysteries. There will be seven pictures, in presenting which several thousand persons will be employed. A unique feature will be the orchestra of two hundred players, who will be placed on a platform high above the stage to heighten the effect of mystery, while a group of bells will chime from a Gothic church which is to be built in the arena of the huge Olympia Theatre.

Charles-Théodore Malherbe, whose death, at the age of fifty-eight, has been reported from Cormeilles, France, became principal archivist of the Paris Opéra in 1899. Among his works may be mentioned "L'Œuvre dramatique de Richard Wagner," "Mélanges sur Richard Wagner," etc. He had a remarkable private collection of musical autographs.

Art

Canova. By Vittorio Malamani. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.

This volume, published without date, is a noteworthy production of the year 1911. Though somewhat heavy to handle, it is by no means heavy in style, but is enlivened by graphic descriptions, by personal incidents, and a great abundance of photographic illustration. Signor Malamani has spared no pains in garnering his materials. Letters, published and unpublished, old engravings, newspapers, periodicals, and books have been carefully scanned, and he has travelled far and to many lands to see for himself works which have been concealed in private collections. The photographic reproductions alone are a source for Canova study to which scholars will turn for many years to come. Signor Malamani is not a critic of the modern school, but rather a genial and sympathetic biographer—in fact, a Vasari of the twentieth century. His descriptions of Canova's youth, of his emotional ex-

periences, and, later, of his triumphant return to his native town are delightful bits of narrative.

Canova was an enthusiastic reviver of classic themes in sculpture, but his interest went further. When the opportunity offered, he promptly purchased from a French architect eighty Roman inscriptions, which formerly belonged to the Giustiniani family, and presented them to the Vatican, thus establishing a Museo Lapidario, which afterward developed into the Museo Chiaramonti. Nor did he hesitate to plead with Napoleon himself for the restoration of classic treasures to Italy. This enthusiasm was perhaps somewhat indiscriminating. When he went to London in 1815 and saw the sculptures from the Parthenon he wrote:

The works of Phœdrias, then, are true flesh and blood, that is to say, to be classed with the beauties of nature; flesh and blood is the armless Mercury of the Belvidere, also the Torso of Hercules; flesh and blood are the dying gladiator and the oft repeated Satyr of Praxiteles; flesh and blood the Cupid of which fragments are found everywhere; also the Venus of Praxiteles; and, furthermore, a Venus of the British Museum is altogether flesh and blood; as are also two small satyrs, etc.

Thus, works of quite varied styles from different periods appear to him equally beautiful, equally successful as reflections of nature. It seems strange to us as we survey the reproductions of his works—works for the most part characterized by excessive formality—that he should have been thus impressed by the realism of classic art. One of his earliest works, the Icarus and Dædalus, shows a touch of realism that he seldom even approximated in his later work. It has a vigor and a charm of naturalism that is missing even in his portrait sculptures. Could he have developed in this direction, could he have remained away from Rome and addressed himself to nature, rather than to archaeology, he might have produced works more vigorous and more original. As it was, he became a master of outline and of form, and lost the very quality he most admired in the works of the classic sculptors.

Occasionally, we find him open to influences of post-classic art. Thus, the model for a relief for the tomb of the Marchese Berio, with its emotional expression of grief, recalls well-known compositions of Donatello, and a Pietà, the model for which is preserved at Posagno, seems to have been inspired by the works of Begarelli. And in his large sepulchral monuments we are sometimes reminded of Bernini. But none of these influences was permanent with him. It was the classic types which controlled his art. In spite of the great abundance of his works, the types he preferred—or rather those which appealed to his clientèle—were compara-

tively few, and we find frequent repetitions of the same theme with very slight variations of treatment. In all, there is the charm of refinement, and this may explain why his works were for the most part produced in response to aristocratic demand. His funerary stelæ, in spite of a certain formality, are beautiful embodiments of refined grief. But his Hebes and Dancing Girls and his Venuses are for the most part sentimental in conception and artificial in character, and hence do not make a strong appeal to the sculpture loving public of to-day.

A work embodying the results of Lord Carnarvon's long explorations at Thebes is announced by Henry Frowde, with the title "Four Years' Excavations at Thebes"; chapters in the volumes are contributed also by Howard Carter, F. L. Griffith, George Legrain, Dr. Moller, Professor Newberry, and Professor Spiegelburg.

In "Famous Castles and Palaces of Italy" (Scribner), Edmund B. d'Auvergne has had primarily to write a text for pictures—there are eight color-plates, after sketches by C. E. Dawson—but he has acquitted himself of the task with spirit and with sufficient learning. He carries the story down selectively from Castel Sant' Angelo to the ducal palace of Mantua, with which we reach the Renaissance. The survey runs from Apulia, with its Norman strongholds, to the sub-Alpine vale of Aosta. Bracciano, Poppi, Ferrara, Urbino, and the castles of Naples are included. In the embarrassment of choice offered by Italy, one cannot quarrel with Mr. d'Auvergne's selections. Possibly the Saracenic villa at Ravello should have been treated, in view of its exceptional architectural character and historic interest. This is an example of the better sort of professional bookmaking.

Prof. C. Baldwin Brown of the University of Edinburgh has recast his Rhind lectures of 1909 into a handsomely printed book, "The Arts and Crafts of Our Teutonic Forefathers" (McClurg). The book is a model of clear exposition, and except that the illustrations are of too small scale to be very useful, the work of author and printer may be warmly commended. The presentation is popular, and Professor Brown necessarily dispatches in a clause problems that have inspired volumes. He gives the facts clearly, with maps of the Teutonic migrations, and explains the nature of the finds. We have brooches and buckles in abundance, swords, dirks, axes; more rarely helmets and large vessels. It is a metal worker's art, and most of the objects in iron or more precious metals have plated or inlaid designs or are effectively set with stones. It has been maintained that all these so-called Teutonic objects were of Roman manufacture—export goods like the output of modern Birmingham or Tokio. Against this theory the idiomatic quality of Germanic ornamentation seems to speak conclusively.

Louis A. Ehrlich, who died in London, October 23, at the age of sixty-one, had of late years made an enviable reputation as a connoisseur and dealer in old paintings. He was a graduate of Yale and began active life as a merchant. During a period

of invalidism he turned, on the one hand, to political reform, and on the other, to picture collecting. This avocation led to what was ultimately to be his calling. In scholarship he easily surpassed his colleagues in the trade, and he had in an unusual degree the confidence of museum officials and private collectors. For many years he was president of the Free Trade League. He was prominent also in the Gold Democratic and in the Anti-imperialist movements. A man of vivid and varied intellectual interests, he will be greatly missed.

Among the works of Constant Moyaux, the French architect who died recently at the age of seventy-six, may be mentioned the tomb of Léon Cogniet at Père Lachaise, the monument to Laplace, the astronomer, at St. Martin-de-Mailloc, the Meudon observatory, and the restoration of the dome of the Institute in 1874. In 1890, he was made professor at the Ecole des Beaux Arts.

The death is reported from Paris, in his fifty-seventh year, of Eugène-Henri Cauchois, who was noted for his pictures of still life, especially of flowers.

Finance

THE MARKET AND THE STEEL SUIT.

When the announcement was suddenly made, after the close of the Stock Exchange last Thursday, that the Government had entered suit to dissolve the Steel Corporation, it was received by individual readers or listeners in various ways. Stock Exchange people who were still lingering in Wall Street said at once that the market would have to go down. The Steel Trust's lawyers declared that it ought to be a relief to have the uncertainty about a suit removed. Other people insisted that the uncertainty was now worse than ever.

At the clubs and the various evening conferences, it was next rather generally concluded that the market's instinctive feeling that a suit was coming—especially after Attorney-General Wickersham's curious newspaper interview of last month—had been behind Steel common's break from \$0 at the end of July to 51½ last month. But the average man-in-the-street merely wondered what sort of overwhelming crash would seize the Stock Exchange next day. He reasoned from his knowledge that the "billion-dollar Trust" has 120,000 shareholders, that all sorts of people among his own acquaintance "held a little Steel," and that there was potential liquidation on a startling scale.

Next morning, Steel common opened 3½ points down; that was the London selling. It fell 5 points further, then recovered 2 points or so of its earlier 8½-point loss. On Saturday, it opened a fraction lower and advanced a point; on Monday (when many people looked for a large supply of selling orders by mail from the outside public), the stock

rose 1½ points further; on Tuesday, 1¾. Clearly, the 120,000 separate holders of the stock were keeping their heads.

So far as concerns the problem as to how the stock's market value would be affected pending the suit thus suddenly initiated, there is some interesting precedent. Northern Securities was the first great corporate combination ordered to be dissolved; its stock was selling around 102 when Attorney-General Knox, in February, 1902, began the Government's dissolution suit. From that price the shares declined to 81½ in 1903. When the final decision of the Supreme Court was handed down in March, 1904, Northern Securities was back at 90, and two weeks later the price again crossed par. Standard Oil was quoted at 630 on May 4, 1906, the day when President Roosevelt sent his special message to Congress announcing that the Department of Justice would take action. After the suit was actually started, the stock sold down to 390, but on the 31st of last August, the day when the company's books were closed, and the corporation, as it had been known, passed out of existence, the price was 630—exactly what it was in May, 1906.

The price of American Tobacco stock, just before the Government's suit was started in March, 1906, was 513. The price subsequently declined to 174½; but last May, two weeks after the Supreme Court had handed down its decision against the company, the price was back at 520. And even as regards the intervening break in the two industrial stocks, it must be remembered that the Oil and Tobacco suits were instituted in the boom year 1906, when all the market was on a very high level, and that the low prices mentioned came in the panic of 1907, and represented a relatively not more severe decline than occurred in many other stocks.

Such was the story in stocks of companies which the Supreme Court eventually ordered to be dissolved. They received their dividends regularly, until the final decree of dissolution. In the case of Northern Securities—the only combination where the longer history subsequent to its dissolution is as yet in evidence—the component companies, whose stock was allotted *pro rata* to the holders of Northern Securities shares, were more prosperous after the dissolution than before, and paid larger dividends.

It is impossible, however, not to feel regret that a position so full of possible anxieties and worries should have been forced upon this great body of investors—many of them people of small means. If the Steel suit is nothing but "playing politics" by an administration anxious for winning popular support for next year's election, then no denuncia-

tion of the attorney-general and the President could be too severe. A considerable part of the community is taking the major premise in that argument for granted.

But there are some other considerations which must also be kept in mind. The law being what it is, it was either right that the corporation should be brought into court, or it was wrong; and that question cannot be determined by the number of investors in the property. The statement issued by the Steel management, last week, washing its hands of responsibility and blaming the Government for whatever loss an investor may hereafter incur, was in somewhat questionable taste. If the Steel Corporation is hereafter adjudged by the court not to have violated the Anti-Trust law, and not to have broken down the conditions of equal competition and legitimate trade, then there is not the slightest reason why the investor in the shares will be any worse off hereafter than he is to-day. More than that, a harassing uncertainty, which must always have operated against the value of his stock, would be permanently removed.

And if the Government were to win the suit and the Trust were to be dissolved, it is quite as true as it was before that the property is there, and that the courts which dissolved the holding company would protect the investor in his rights to it. There is no question of confiscation in the matter, and there is infinitely less question of shattered market valuations than there would have been if the suit had been brought when Steel Common was at 94½, two years ago, or when it was squeezing its working capital to pay dividends, in the first years of its history.

But even this does not touch the core of the matter. What few people yet appear to realize is that the movement to break up such combinations as may be adjudged in restraint of trade, is a movement not to embark on untried and uncharted industrial seas, but to restore conditions with which the world had been familiar during many generations, and with which it achieved all its previous eras of prosperity. It is these immense trade combinations which are themselves the experiments, and some of them have been glaringly unsuccessful ones. Even in Germany, so often cited for our admonishment in the matter, there are signs of the similar experiment breaking down. Two arguments are constantly produced by people who contend that the whole attempt to restrain our huge trade combinations is senseless and malicious, and both of the arguments are unfounded. One is, that the so-called "Trust movement" of 1899 and 1901 was the only means of saving the various industrial enterprises from a hopeless situation. The other is, that the Anti-Trust law undertakes to forbid the conducting of any business on a large scale.

The first is wrong in its history, the second wrong in its facts. Instead of being in a state of ruin, the separate plants which were taken into the huge amalgamations of that period were highly prosperous—so much so that, in the Steel Trust's case, one reason for its paying the 4 per cent. dividend on its inflated common stock in 1901 was that half of the companies bought up by it had been paying 4 per cent. on similarly watered capital of their own. Some of them had come to grief in the money market, a few years before, and some of them, if left to themselves, would probably have done so a few years later, when the Steel Trust itself skated over some unpleasantly thin ice. But that was no novel discovery of that day.

Going concerns, with proper management and capitalization, were so flourishing that, except for the constitutional cripples already mentioned, the Steel Corporation had hard work to get them in. As for the notion that the proscribing of the Oil and Tobacco Trusts meant that no great business, and no reasonable combination, would be allowed again, that idea was doubtless encouraged by one unhappy *obiter dictum* of the Circuit Court; but the Supreme Court opinions of last spring made very short work of it.

It remains for the Department of Justice to prove that the Steel Trust violates the Anti-Trust law and threatens the free exchange of trade. It has not proved that yet; the Corporation's own side is still to be heard. Some allegations in the attorney-general's petition (notably its references to the motives and actions of the Trust in 1907) will be pretty hard to prove, and are believed to be quite unfounded by people who were on the spot at the time and who had reason to know what was being done and why. And even the prosecuting officers can hardly doubt that the Steel Corporation has a vastly better case, in the light of the recent opinions of the Supreme Court in the Anti-Trust law litigation, than was possessed by the Standard Oil or the American Tobacco.

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